

THE
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- ART. I. — 1. *C. Crispi Sallustii de Catilinæ Conjurazione Belloque Jugurthino Historiæ*. Animadversionibus illustravit CAROLUS ANTHON, Lit. Græc. et Lat. in Coll. Col. N. E. Prof. Jaius. Editio Quarta, prioribus longe emendatior. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, and Wilkins. New York. G. and C. and H. Carvill. 1831. 12mo. pp. 386.
2. *Sallust*. Translated by WILLIAM ROSE, M. A.; with Improvements and Notes. [Classical Family Library, No. V.] New York. J. & J. Harper. 1831. 18mo. pp. 242.

THE late publication of a translation of Sallust as one of the volumes of a popular work, has called some attention to the character of Sallust as a man and a writer. It may be well, therefore, to state the substance of the testimony of ancient authors respecting him.

Caius Crispus Sallustius (we "love," with Doctor Primrose, "to give the whole name,") was born B. C. 86; and died B. C. 45. He was a man of loose morals and profligate habits, and when governor of Numidia, amassed immense wealth by injustice and extortion. But his writings are not sullied by the impurity of his own mind; their morality is of the most stern and unbending severity; he praises the virtue which he does not imitate, and condemns in others the vice which he allows in himself. His style is remarkable for brevity, both of thought and expression, in which he imitated Thucydides; and for the use of obsolete words, which he borrowed from the writings of the elder Cato. Quintilian honors him with this high praise; "*Nec Thucydidi opponere Sallustum verear;*" and Martial, by a flattering poetical

license, speaks of him as "Crispus Romanâ primus in historiâ."

Sallust, in this country, is studied too early in the classical course. It is one of the books in which candidates are examined for admission into our colleges. But, from his peculiar style and orthography, and his frequent obscurity of meaning, this author is so difficult, that few boys can tolerably translate his language, still fewer can enter into his spirit. It would be far better that some easier work, as Cæsar or Ovid, should take the place of Sallust among preparatory books, and that the latter should be read in College, at a more advanced stage of the course. Our opinion is supported by the authority of Quintilian: "Livium a pueris legendum velim, magis quam Sallustium; ad quem intelligendum jam profectu opus sit."

We proceed to examine "Anthon's Sallust." The printing of the book is by no means creditable to the publishers, or those concerned in the mechanical execution. The eye is frequently offended with imperfect letters, and with the omission, particularly at the ends of lines, of letters, hyphens, and points.

We read on the title-page, in good plain English, the names of the places in which the book is published; and the publishers names are linked together by our vernacular connective *and*. "*Boston: Hilliard, Gray, Little, and Wilkins.—New York: G. and C. and H. Carvill.*" On the reverse of the title-page we read, "Excudit R. & G. S. Wood;" and on the next page, "Excudit Johannes T. West & Soc.," a similar honor being bestowed also upon the fabricator of the stereotype. There should be a consistency in these little matters, which some one should look to. In regard to *excudit* instead of *excuderunt* (for which reading we suppose the editor is responsible), we presume that it is not an oversight, and that Professor Anthon thinks it defensible. If so, we must differ from him. He will undoubtedly allow that the verb must be put in the plural after two nominatives singular, or two nominatives, one in the singular, and the other in the plural, as a general rule. And why he has resorted to an exception or to a figurative syntax in such a simple annunciation, it is not for us to say. Such an ellipsis is not common in classical authors; and when it is found, generally, if not always, some adjunct is interposed between one or both of the nominatives, and the verb.

A Latin Dedication to Bishop Hobart, of twenty-one lines, is followed by a Latin Preface, six pages in length. We have an objection in general to Latin prefaces to editions of the ancient classics. We acknowledge indeed the truth of Cowper's remark; "What a dignity there is in the Roman language! The same thought, which, clothed in English, seems childish and even foolish, assumes a different air in Latin;" but when we meet with a Latin preface to a Latin author, we cannot avoid making a comparison between the language and style of the author, and those of the editor; a comparison seldom to the advantage of the latter. A still stronger objection lies against a Latin preface to a school-book, in which the biography of the Latin author, and the critical notes, interpretations of peculiar passages, and various commentaries are given in a modern language, as is the case in the book before us, making a *farrago libelli* at variance with good taste and good judgment.

Two pages of the Preface are occupied with a notice of the character of the late Professor Wilson, written, as the author states, with the view of appeasing the *manes* of his friend. Far be it from us to speak with levity of the feelings with which a man cherishes the memory of a deceased friend and teacher. But since that very estimable man and scholar has so long ceased from his labors, and so few of the readers of this book will feel any interest concerning Mr. Anthon's opinion of him, this rhetorical display seems not to have either of the essential requisites for a composition of this kind, namely, those of time and place.

We hope we shall not be classed with the "*nugatores nugacissimi*" against whom the author indignantly declaims, if we make one more allusion to the style of the Preface. Johnson once asked his friend Warton, "Which do you think the best line in my translation of Pope's *Messiah*?" at the same time repeating his own favorite line. "I told him," says Warton, "I thought it a very sonorous hexameter. I did not tell him, it was not in the Virgilian style." Of Mr. Anthon's Preface we say; It is a very sonorous piece of Latin. We will not say, It is not in the Ciceronian style.

We go on to the text. Mr. Anthon has followed, generally, the text of Cortius, but has assumed the authority of altering it by adopting the readings of other editions. This he should have done more cautiously. He has often varied

from the text of Cortius on very slight grounds. The text is, therefore, a medley of the readings of various editors.* The punctuation, in our judgment, is often faulty. In this respect, it presents a striking contrast to that of the London edition of Sallust, after the text of Cortius, in the "Regent's Classics," an edition so remarkable for accuracy in the pointing. We are sorry to see that the editor has neglected, in a book for the use of schools, to place the circumflex over ablatives in *a*; a rule which it has been thought proper to adopt in the London edition of the classics above mentioned.

The text is printed with tolerable accuracy. Some errors, however, are retained from the preceding edition. Thus, to say nothing of mistakes in pointing, we find on page 19, *maledictia* for *maledicta*; on page 22, *duobis* for *duobus*; on page 73, *Numidia* for *Numidiæ*; on page 121, *effusi* for *effusi*; errors which would be more excusable, were they not copied from the third edition. These are small things; and we would not notice them, did not this edition profess, upon its title-page, to be "*prioribus longe emendatior*."

Passing over a notice of the life and character of Sallust, from Dunlop's "Roman Literature," we come to the Notes. They occupy a very large portion of the book. Of the three hundred and ninety-seven pages of the volume, only one hundred and thirty-two are occupied with the text of Sallust, to be washed down by double the number of pages occupied by the Preface, Notes, &c. "O monstrous! but one half-penny worth of bread to this intolerable deal of sack!"

The Notes are certainly too long and too numerous. The Editor says, in his Preface, "*Mos apud alios nostratum obtinet, notulis solis, (quamvis immerentes sint parum refert) laudem et honores abundanter impertiendi, dum scommatibus et contumeliis commentaria uberiora dilacerare nituntur*;" and assails with expressions of contemptuous ridicule those of whom he speaks. We venture to differ from him. "People," says Temple, "that trust wholly to others' charity, will be always poor." Editors of the classics should beware, lest, in the fulness of their bounty, they relieve learners from all

* We should recommend to editors, in all cases of amended texts, to be thoroughly provided with authorities. F. D. Gerlach's text of Sallust, with copious critical notes on the readings, (published 1823) is deserving of great attention. His "Commentaries on Sallust" were published a year or two later.

reliance on their own resources. Notes in school-books should be brief, and to the point. There is no difficulty in finding notes on Sallust. We have before us editions, from which we could collect notes, and good ones too, enough to fill several such volumes as that under notice. To select, condense, reject, — this is the labor, this the work.

Many of the notes are upon various readings. These appear to us to be entirely out of place in a book for use in schools. We think an editor should adopt the text which is supported by the best authority, and forbear to perplex young students with arguments and conjectures.

A great many of them contain information which the student should be required to obtain from his "Classical Dictionary," his "Roman Antiquities," his Ainsworth, and his Grammar; and which he would thus obtain in a manner far more profitable to himself. We meet, too, with citations from Greek and French and German authors; as if one language at a time were not enough for the unhappy school-boy. Perhaps we may here be asked, whether the book may not be intended for advanced scholars. No; the Editor himself says that it is "tironum usui præcipue inserviens."

Many of the notes are totally unnecessary. Page 100, note 3, we find "*Indicem*, the informer." The boy will find the same meaning in his dictionary. Page 11, note 23; "*Post conditam urbem Romanam*, since the founding of the Roman city." What dunce, since Rome was built, ever needed an explanation of so simple a phrase?

To notes of another kind, which form the greater number of those in the book, we strongly object. They are those, which, not content with explaining to the student what a passage means, give him the words in which he is to express that meaning; — a fine thing for blockheads who love to make a show with borrowed plumes. Let us look at a few instances, taken at random. "*Infestum inimicum*, a bitter personal enemy;" "*incipere*, to enter upon the achievement of;" "*emori per virtutem*, bravely to encounter a speedy death;" "*virtutis præmia*, the recompenses of merit;" "*ingenii egregia facinora*, the splendid exertions of intellect;" "*aspera sædæque evenerant*, had eventuated in disappointment and disgrace;" "*qui, aliquo negotio intentus, præclari facinoris, aut artis bonæ famam quærit*, who, in whatever employment he may be engaged, seeks for

the reputation attendant on some praiseworthy deed, or the exercise of some useful talent ;" "*prorsus multæ facetiæ multusque lepos inerat*, in a word, she possessed a large share of refined wit, and much captivating sweetness of expression ;" — and so on to the end of the chapter. Now we say ; Let us have none of this. Either require a boy to render, in his own words, the passage of which he understands the meaning, or give him a translation at once. Such paraphrases, sometimes offending against the rules of neatness and simplicity, may well be spared. The editor must not deem us hypercritical, if we venture here to remark, that such expressions as "*eventuate*," "*lection*," "*has got*," seldom occur in good English writers.

The last and worst fault which we find with the Notes is that many of them, if not incorrect, are such as may mislead the pupil. We might prove this assertion by many instances, but our limits confine us to a few. Page 2, note 22, we read, "*Bene dicere*, equivalent to *eloquentiam exercere*." Any one who looks at the passage will see that *bene dicere* is to be taken with *reipublicæ* understood, and means — to speak or write well for the state. But the novice would infer, very blamelessly, that the whole meaning was expressed by the abstract proposition — Eloquence is no mean acquirement. Page 18, note 21, "*lascivia*" is rendered "devotion to public amusements." Its true meaning is *gayety*, *riot*, or, as an old translator renders it, "*frolicknesse*." Page 13, note 5, "*cetera res expedit*" is explained by making *cetera* a nominative singular, and understanding *sese* after *expedit*. *Cetera*, we should think, is in the accusative plural, and is governed by *expedit*.

Page 100, note 6. "*Quieta*, given to uninterrupted repose." The sentence is, "*Neque post id locorum Jugurtha dies aut nox ulla quieta fuisse*," and means, in terms much more simple and natural than those of the editor, — "After that time Jugurtha enjoyed no *peace of mind* either by day or night." Page 111, note 7, "*munditias mulieribus convenire*" is made to signify that "*effeminate indulgences* belong to women." *Munditiæ* means "neatness, delicacy, elegant niceness." Most justly does Marius make it appropriate to woman ! Livy, with his usual felicity of expression, says, "*Munditiæ, et ornatus, et cultus, hæc fœminarum insignia sunt*."

Page 94, note 8. "*His natus*. Understand *virtutibus* after *his*. Most other editions read *is, natus*." Every edition that we have seen reads "*is, natus*;" every translation renders it according to that reading. The note is absurd. Marius possessed at birth of industry, honesty, military skill, valor in war, temperance in peace! Precocious infant!

Page 1, note 7. "*Animi imperio, corporis servitio, magis utimur*. This passage is commonly, though incorrectly, rendered as follows: 'We make more use of the empire of the mind *than* of the obedience of the body.'" By whom is it so rendered? Neither Crosse, nor Gordon, nor Rose, nor Steuart, gives this meaning to it. No commentator so explains it. It may have been often so rendered by boys at school; but this surely cannot justify a critic in saying that it is "commonly rendered." Now we have heard, in Horace, a lad translate "*Heres, nequicquam cæno cupiens evellere plantam*, An heir, in vain desiring to pull a plant for supper;" yet we should hardly think of stating, in a critical note upon the passage, that it was "commonly" so translated.

Page 57, note 1. "In pronouncing *nunquamne* and *semperne*, the stress of the voice must be laid on the antepenultimate syllables, (*nūnquamne, sēmperne*.) Compare Port-Royal Latin Grammar, vol. ii, p. 357." We have compared the Port-Royal Grammar. It now lies open before us at page 357. The editor appears to us entirely to have misapprehended the force of the rule to which he refers. We will make no farther comment upon this note than to request our readers to read, according to the same principle of pronunciation, the following line from Horace:

"*Illuc, unde abii, redeo. Némone, ut avarus,*"

or the following, of a less distinguished author:

Sēmperne ergo insanus eris? Nūnquamne valebis?

We confess, that to our unpractised ear, a penultimate accent upon these words is far more agreeable.

"*Ab ovo usque ad mala*." — We have examined Professor Anthon's Sallust from title-page to *finis*. We have examined it carefully and impartially; and should have been delighted to have found it immaculate. But, while we respect the Editor's character as a scholar, and honor his unwearied devotion to classical learning, we must say, that both in regard to its mechanical execution, and its literary apparatus, valuable as are some of the Notes, it is not such a book as we should be

anxious to see upon the desk of the student, or in the library of the scholar.

The fifth number of the "Classical Family Library," republished by the Messrs. Harpers at New York, contains "Rose's Sallust." Provided that translations are kept out of schools, their circulation will be of advantage. Those whose pursuits prevent them from going to the fountain-head, who are not able to read the ancient classics, will do well to take them at second hand; those who cannot obtain originals, should embrace the opportunity of possessing themselves of copies.

Rose's translation of Sallust is accurate; his style is neat; his language pure. The style is, almost necessarily, more diffuse than that of the original, for Sallust has an "*immortalis velocitas*," unattainable in an English version; and this, therefore, may perhaps better be called a paraphrase than a translation. Bentley once mortified Pope, who wished to know his opinion of his translation of Homer, by saying, "It is a pretty poem, Mr. Pope; but you must not call it Homer." Dr. Rose's work is a pretty history, if we may not call it Sallust.

We may take, as a fair specimen of the whole, the translation of the celebrated comparison between Cato and Cæsar.

"As to their extraction, years, and eloquence, they were nearly equal. Both of them had the same greatness of mind, both the same degree of glory; but in different ways; Cæsar was celebrated for his great bounty and generosity; Cato for his unsullied integrity: the former became renowned by his humanity and compassion; an austere severity heightened the dignity of the latter. Cæsar acquired glory by a liberal, compassionate, and forgiving temper; as did Cato by never bestowing any thing. In the one the miserable found a sanctuary; in the other the guilty met with certain destruction. Cæsar was admired for an easy, yielding temper; Cato for his immovable firmness. Cæsar, in a word, had formed himself for a laborious, active life; was intent on promoting the interest of his friends to the neglect of his own; and refused to grant nothing that was worth accepting: what he desired for himself was to have sovereign command, to be at the head of armies, and engaged in new wars, in order to display his military talents. As for Cato, his only study was moderation, regular conduct, and, above all, rigorous severity. He did not vie with the wealthy in riches, nor in turbulence with the factious; but,

taking a nobler aim, he contended in valor with the brave ; in modesty with the modest ; in integrity with the upright ; and was more desirous to be virtuous than to appear so ; so that the less he courted fame the more it followed him." pp. 82, 83.

ART. II. — *History of Ancient and Modern Greece : illustrated with Maps and Copperplate Engravings.* Edited by JOHN FROST. Boston. Lincoln & Edmands. 8vo. pp. 360.

WHENEVER an important and neglected branch of knowledge is rendered accessible to the public by a new book, we ought to be grateful to the author for the good accomplished, and indulgent towards the defects which may be found in the execution of any particular part of his work. The discharge of this duty is easy in regard to the work placed at the head of this article, combining so many excellences and marred by so few defects.

The study of history in all its branches has hitherto been neglected to a lamentable degree in our academies, colleges, and institutions destined for the pursuit of professional studies. The furnishing of a good class-book, therefore, for the study of one of the most interesting parts of the history of mankind, is certainly to be considered an important means towards introducing and establishing the study of history as a regular part of the instruction in literary institutions.

The work of Mr. Frost does not lay claim to originality. The Preface states that the first and larger part, containing the History of Ancient Greece, is a reprint of a part of "The Library of Useful Knowledge ;" and the latter, the History of Modern Greece, is compiled from "The London Encyclopædia," "The Encyclopædia Americana," and several recent works on the Greek Revolution. Allowing that Mr. Frost has made, in general, a judicious selection of materials, we shall not hold him accountable for all the particulars to which we may object in his work. The print is close but very distinct, and, what in a school-book is especially important, correct ; we have discovered but few errors. Most proper names, both of persons and places, appear in their original Greek form, which is certainly more becoming than that in which we generally meet them after their transmigration through the Latin and English.

The History of Ancient Greece is divided into chapters, most of which comprise periods well marked in the series of events ; and the chapters are subdivided into sections and paragraphs. The first chapter contains an account of the state of Greece previous to the Trojan war, and very properly commences with a geographical description of the country ; which, however, ought to be more full, as long as Ancient Geography is not a regular study accompanying that of Ancient History.

A frequent fault in the history of the earlier periods of nations, especially ancient nations, is the attempt to furnish a complete description ; the pains taken to fill up the few outlines which authentic records have transmitted to us, or severe investigation has brought to light, so as to constitute a finished picture. It is now well established, especially by the researches of Niebuhr, Beaufort, and others, that Roman history has suffered much from this propensity ; nor has the history of Greece entirely escaped its influence. In the latter it is of importance to point out the gradual transition from mythological traditions to the more solid ground of history. In this respect the above volume is open to criticism. How few of the events contained in the first three chapters, which bring the account down to the Persian wars, are facts well established as to their particulars and time ! How much are they mixed up with poetical fictions and the shallow accounts of after historians ! We are aware how much the effect upon the feelings and imagination is impaired by making at all times a nice distinction between history and fiction. We remember ourselves the painful sensation which we experienced, when we came to learn that Livy's account of the issue of the invasion of the Gauls and of the victory of Camillus was indeed in accordance with poetical justice, but not with historical truth. We should always bear in mind that the criterion of history is truth ; that of fiction, poetical beauty ; they should never be confounded. Much of what is contained in the first three chapters of the work before us is highly probable ; but it should not be kept concealed from the learner, that much is yet wanting to raise that probability to certainty.

A more serious objection, which we feel ourselves constrained to express, to this history, — more serious, because it is not confined to one portion, but, in a greater or less degree,

extends through the whole of the History of Ancient Greece, — is the scarcity of dates. A narrative without dates ceases almost to be history; the time in which an event takes place bears a very essential relation to the event itself. Without a knowledge of this time we cannot obtain a correct and clear idea as to the relation in which this event stands to any other, nor appreciate fully its importance. To illustrate this objection we shall refer to a few instances. It is said, page 15, that the date of the foundation of Sicyon and Argos is to be fixed at about the same time as that at which Cecrops formed his settlement in Attica; but we look in vain for some information as to the date of the latter event. Even a general statement would do much towards conveying a clearer idea as to the relative time of this immigration. The most common assumption is that Cecrops settled in Attica and Cadmus in Bœotia about 1550 B. C., Danaus in Argos about 1500, and Pelops also in Argos, about 1400. In the whole account of the Peloponnesian war, one of the most important periods of Grecian history, one date only, the fifty years' peace with Lacedæmon (421 B. C.), and at the close the extent of the whole war (431–403), are mentioned. The duration of the second Persian war, we think, is not mentioned. Would not much be contributed towards impressing the young student forcibly with the greatness and importance of the events of which he reads, if he found it plainly stated that the almost uninterrupted chain of great and heroic exploits from the passage of Xerxes over the Hellespont to the transfer of the chief command from Sparta to Athens is comprised within about ten years, from 480 to 470 B. C.? Few periods in all history are to be found in which so many events are crowded into so small a space of time. The student should perceive this clearly in order to estimate correctly Grecian perseverance and Grecian prowess.

In the latter part of the work dates occur more frequently, although with great inequality; Chapter xii. is almost entirely destitute of them. In a few instances, especially in the earlier history, there is a material variation from the commonly received chronology. The legislation of Lycurgus (page 34) is put in the year 708, instead of 880; the change from kings to archons for life, in Athens, after the death of Codrus, in 804, instead of 1068 (page 35); the archons for life, whose number by the way was thirteen, not twelve, governed

not 160, but 316 years, from 1068 to 752; the year of the legislation of Solon (page 36) is 594, about one hundred years before the Persian wars. We do not know to what these differences are owing, whether they are misprints, or errors, or statements founded on a different chronology. We highly approve the method of calculating according to the birth of Christ instead of mentioning the Olympiads, a method, which, however national, is inconvenient in itself, and still more so for a comparative view of the history of several nations.

The due proportion in the accounts of the several events seems to us to have been observed. Too much space, perhaps has been allowed to the account of the expedition of Cyrus the Younger (page 119); it was no national enterprise, and had no influence on the state of Greece. If it is to be mentioned at all, it is to be mentioned only as one of the most striking and interesting examples of a system extensively used at the time; we mean the system of employing mercenaries, which procured distinction and wealth to many individuals, but was as baneful to Greece as in modern times to Switzerland.

If there is any material omission in the History of Ancient Greece, it consists in there being no particular account given of the Grecian colonies, especially in Italy, which contributed no small share to refinement and luxury, to literature and philosophy. Towns and states such as Tarentum, which stood up a rival of Rome; Croton, which, in little more than one hundred years after its foundation was able to furnish 120,000 armed men in the war against the Locri; Sybaris, which raised an army of 300,000 men against Croton, and became proverbial for its luxury; Cumæ, Rhegium, and many others, are certainly too important in themselves and in their influence upon their mother country, upon other nations and after times to be omitted in a history of Greece.

Notwithstanding these exceptions which we have felt it our duty to make to the work, we recommend it most heartily as a class-book for schools or academies, and the lower classes of colleges. In the higher classes, the important study of history should assume a more scientific and critical character than belongs to this book, or would be judicious and advantageous in the instruction of younger students.

With regard to the latter portion of the volume, containing the History of Modern Greece, we shall content ourselves with a few words. Contemporary history is at all times a difficult undertaking, especially in an instance in which the peculiar situation of the nation whose history is to be written, affords so few facilities for procuring correct information of events and persons. We mention one instance, Capo d'Istria, who is now standing before a higher tribunal than that of public opinion; he is viewed by some as a true patriot and judicious statesman, who intended by degrees to conduct his countrymen to an honorable rank among the European nations, while others see in him merely a creature of Russian despotism, sacrificing the most sacred interests of his native country to the illiberal and grasping policy of that mighty northern power.

The greatest advantage which we look for in a history of this kind is, that it will tend to keep alive the feeble, indeed, yet widely spread interest in the exertions of the descendants of the most cultivated and refined nation of antiquity, struggling from a degrading state of political bondage into independence, and from a still more degrading state of ignorance and barbarism into a condition worthy of our age and religion.

ART. III. — *Dyspepsy Forestalled and Resisted; or Lectures on Diet, Regimen, and Employment, delivered to the Students of Amherst College.* By EDWARD HITCHCOCK, Professor of Chemistry and Natural History in that Institution. Second edition. Enlarged by an Address delivered at Andover, and an Appendix. Amherst. J. S. & C. Adams. 12mo. pp. 452.

IN the Preface to the first edition of the above work, the author offers an apology for not attending to literary niceties, on the ground of want of time and the pressure of professional occupation during the preparation of the Lectures, together with a desire to have them made public while the impression occasioned by the delivery of them was yet fresh on the minds of those, for whose benefit in particular they were prepared. The excuse is perhaps reasonable enough, though we could have wished that there might have been no necessity for making it. The style of the Lectures is earnest

and even fervid, but occasionally tinged with exaggeration and over-straining for immediate effect, and with extravagance of metaphor sometimes approaching to caricature and sometimes to bombast. Coming from a member of the Faculty of a literary institution of some note, the work seems to deserve more attention in this respect, than if it were the production of a common professional man ; as in this case the matter is usually more to be attended to than the manner, provided the latter does not obscure the former. Still, however, we think, that every one volunteering his remarks to the public, should use all reasonable care to clothe them in the best possible dress ; and if he come without being particularly called for, haste is hardly to be admitted as an excuse for neglect of preparation. With these general remarks we pass to the substance of the work.

The great division of the subject is made into Four Parts. The First is Diet, which is treated of in five lectures. These embrace a consideration of the quantity of food proper to be taken for the most perfect preservation of life and health, and for the restoration of the latter when impaired by what are called nervous complaints ; also of the qualities and consequent fitness or unfitness for use, consistently with health, of the various articles commonly employed amongst us for food and drink, with a diatribe on some articles of luxury or recreation, which properly belong to neither, as opium and tobacco. The proper times of taking food are also treated of. Various rules are laid down for the benefit of those who need them, and of all others ; and the objections that may be made to them, are disposed of, sometimes by fair reasoning, and sometimes by arguments that savour a little of what, we believe, logicians call *ad hominem*. We are not confident however on that point ; but they reminded us of Lord Peter's argument to convince Martin and Jack, that a brown crust was a leg of mutton. There are also held out to the cultivators of abstemiousness promises of length of days, glory, and honor, that appear somewhat like the *Houris* of Mahomet's paradise, destined with their charms to console true believers for the hard knocks they may get, in fighting to the end for the faith of the prophet. Finally, there are appeals to patriotism and religion, not so much we apprehend to confirm the arguments, as to wear the appearance of so doing, and by a sort of impressive authority to cause them

to sink deeper into yielding minds, and to be received with perhaps less of question than might otherwise be given to them.

Yet on the whole, the substance of these Lectures is good and judicious, and as a system of diet we should make less objection to it, than to others that we have seen ; so convinced are we, that among men of sedentary habits and literary pursuits, there are vastly more that suffer from excess and haste in eating and drinking, than from abstemiousness. The great fault is, that the system is pushed to excess, and confined, as appears to us, within needlessly narrow limits as to the qualities of food, or the different articles that may be made use of. To the quantity we should not object so much, thinking it to be generally sufficient, though somewhat more license may be allowed without harm to healthy persons, paying reasonable attention to exercise. It is evident from the author's doctrines, even if he did not assure us of the fact, that he is a dyspeptic himself, and he is a little too much inclined to regulate all other men's stomachs by the conscience of his own ; forgetting the power of habit over the human frame in a state of health, by which it is enabled, within certain limits, to accommodate itself to circumstances, so as after a while to bear with impunity, and even to profit by, things at first productive of inconvenience and uneasiness ; much more, things not really necessary, but yet grateful to it, provided no great excess be indulged in. He also seems to forget, that there are such things as idiosyncrasies, which will render a small fragment of a tenderly done egg productive of great distress and even absolute incapacity of digestion to a man who will manage with great ease and relish a hearty plateful of baked beans, pease-soup, green corn, or cucumbers. Of these idiosyncrasies, or peculiarities of digestive powers, there are many varieties ; few individuals are indeed absolutely subject to the same rules.

Among other arguments in his appeals to patriotism and religion, he urges this, that by restricting the expenses of food, cookery, &c., to what is merely necessary for the comfortable support of nature, great sums may be saved for the advancement of religious purposes, &c. Were this abstemiousness universally practised, as it ought to be if the rule be good, we fancy that the sources of superfluous revenue would be proportionally diminished ; and were the rule applied to

all other expenses, as consistency would seem to require, the world, if persuaded uniformly to adopt them, would be in much the same plight as the inhabitants of the perfect world seen by Asem the man-hater, in Goldsmith's apologue, which Professor Hitchcock may possibly find worth a re-perusal.

The Second great division of the subject is Regimen, to which two lectures are devoted. The first of these treats of exercise; the second, of air, cleanliness, clothing, sleep, manners, and influence of the imagination and passions upon health. The remarks upon these subjects are for the most part very correct and deserving of great attention, particularly those in the lecture on exercise. This is a thing of great importance, and greatly neglected in our literary seminaries and among persons of sedentary pursuits, and we are fully persuaded from our own observation, that this neglect is the cause of more mischief than any other. The author's rules for sleep are also good, though we are inclined to think that, in many situations, the notion of the advantage of very early rising is often a mistaken one. Where any deleterious miasm prevails, exposure to the damp air of the morning, before it has been warmed by the rays of the sun, is quite as likely to be productive of ill consequences, as exposure to the air of evening at the same distance from the time of the sun's setting; if there be any difference, we should think the evening air the safer of the two. In any place we doubt whether the first be better than the last, except merely from the energy of the system being recruited by sleep, and therefore more able to oppose the mischiefs.

In speaking of manners, the influence of passion, &c., we observe that the Professor renders a due tribute to the advantages to be derived from intercourse with virtuous and polished female society, while yet he very fervently deprecates the influence of love. Now we know of no way in which this, as he describes it, most pernicious mental disease is more apt to be contracted, than by the very intercourse that he recommends; with young men, many cases of it must be the almost necessary result of such intercourse. Here we think the Professor is rather too hard upon the subjects of his advice, and we doubt, not a little, the correctness of his doctrine as a general rule. Although it is in some respects desirable that a young man, whose prospects in life are yet

matters of uncertainty, should be exempt from ties that may shackle his freedom of pursuit, and clog his energy, yet we have known very many instances, where a virtuous and reciprocated affection has proved both a strong barrier against temptations, and a powerful incentive to industry and achievement.

Next to Regimen comes Employment, likewise the subject of a single lecture, containing some observations on the effects of different occupations upon health, upon the best mode of study, and the advantages of different kinds of recreation, and the like. Many of these observations and the general tenor of the whole are good; though, still, parts of the lecture betray the same inclination for severe and ascetic discipline which we have before noticed, occasionally at variance with sound knowledge and true philosophy. Thus, he strongly insists upon the utility and necessity of studying for the most part in the posture of standing erect; at the same time speaking of the advantages of grace and ease in bodily appearance. Now a habit of constantly standing is favorable neither to health nor to grace. Its consequences are stiffening of the ligaments and muscles, with retarded circulation of the fluids of the lower extremities; the former rendering the motions awkward and ungraceful, and the latter disposing the limbs to swelling, varicose enlargement of the veins, &c., productive of troublesome and difficultly healed ulcerations from slight injuries of the skin, as medical men have abundant reason to know. The true philosophy of posture in study is, to vary the position so as to produce the greatest bodily ease and comfort, alternately employing and relaxing different sets of muscles, and giving all possible freedom of play to the vessels that carry on the circulation. Thus, with proper exercise and attention to erectness of gait in walking, all the different moving fibres and articulations of the frame will be preserved in due suppleness and power of tension and flexure, producing ease and grace of movement and deportment.

The author also goes through the usual form of decrying novels. Indiscriminate and profuse novel-reading is undoubtedly pernicious; but to one who has to live by mingling with his fellow-men, and to whom a knowledge of human nature in all its varieties of character is of course useful if not absolutely necessary, we are inclined to think as much advantage may be

derived from perusing the pages of Scott, Edgeworth, and several others, as from poring over ascetic school-men, or bitter-tongued theologians, besides being infinitely better suited for the recreation of the mind. The concluding Lecture, making the Fourth Part, is devoted to Dyspepsy, treating principally of its effects upon the mind and the nervous sensibilities, and inculcating temperance in all things as the best means of preventing and remedying it. For the prevention it is good, and of great importance in the remedial treatment, though often requiring the aid of medicine to assist it by rectifying various disordered conditions of different organs.

We perceive by various allusions and remarks through the work, that Professor Hitchcock is a "laudator temporis acti," one of those, who, according to the boy's illustration, will have it, that the apples of Adam's time were wonderfully large. He keeps constantly referring to the achievements of former days, as if men two or three centuries back were vastly more temperate in eating and drinking than at present, and much more healthy. Now authentic accounts of the habits of those times fully show, that, among those who were able to suit their palate, much more gross and stimulating living, much more sinning against such rules of temperance as many of those given by him, prevailed, than at present, though with much less nicety and attention to real comfort; and unless our recollection of medical statistics sorely fails us, the prevalence and mortality of severe diseases have on the whole greatly diminished from those days to the present, partly in consequence of this very increase of nicety and attention to comfort. The more intellectual and refined state of society at present may indeed have substituted for some of those diseases less fatal, but yet harassing complaints; but on the whole we have little doubt that the balance is in favor of modern days, both as to health and to intellectual power and acquirements.

After so particular an examination of its contents and their value, we shall leave our readers to form for themselves a conclusion as to the general merits of the work before us; merely observing, that to us it seems to contain, in regard to its materials, much that is good, little or nothing that is injurious, but some things that are unnecessary. We fear that the author is a little *intemperate* in his zeal and strictness.

ART. IV. — *Elements of Chemistry in the Order of the Lectures given in Yale College.* By BENJAMIN SILLIMAN, Professor of Chemistry, Pharmacy, Mineralogy, and Geology. New Haven. Hezekiah Howe. 1830, 1831. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 518 and 696.

WE have long known the author of the work before us, as a zealous editor of a journal, devoted to science and arts. Our earliest recollections of him are associated with the journal of the late Dr. Bruce. We have never seen Mr. Silliman, though we have always looked forward to an introduction, as one of the pleasant things which time has still in his wallet for us. We are glad it is so. We can speak of his book uninfluenced by that delightful fascination, which, we are told, entwines itself around the hearts of those who remember his personal acquaintance. We have never troubled the world with our thoughts on any chemical subject. We are glad of it. We have thus, probably, escaped enumeration among the thousand and one, whose "golden opinions" Mr. Silliman has unintentionally bought, by kindly mentioning their names in his preface, text, or notes. We go therefore to the task of noticing this work free, unbiassed, unshackled, untrammelled, fettered by nothing, except that besetting sin of honest reviewers, a merciful spirit.

Our booksellers' shelves are already bending under their load of elementary works on chemistry, and we are very sorry to see that Mr. Silliman has added two ponderous octavos to the weight. We are sorry to see this; 1. On account of his own reputation. It will not be a gainer. 2. We are sorry to see this on account of the publisher. He will be a loser. 3. We are sorry to see this on account of the public. The public does not want it. Besides several foreign treatises on chemistry, of matchless merit, which have been republished here, we can count some dozen of native growth, good, bad, and indifferent. We have been actually flooded with Elements, Introductions, Outlines, and First Lines, Grammars, and Rudiments, and Compendiums of chemistry, and borne down to earth by some of higher pretensions. There is no famine in the land. We need not "go down to Egypt to buy corn." Indeed our author himself seems to have been fully of our opinion. He tells us that for more than twenty years Henry's "Elements" was his text-

book; and that he ceased to use it, because its increased size rendered it no longer cheap enough to be here reprinted. It is quite unfortunate, that, while Mr. Silliman was thus stating his reasons for abandoning Henry, the Philadelphia publisher should come out with his eleventh edition, neither larger nor dearer than the work of Professor Silliman. However, if Henry had not been again republished among us, there is no reason for the appearance of this new work. After Henry, Mr. Silliman recommended Dr. Webster's "Manual on Brande's basis." "Few works," he says, "contain so much important information;" an opinion, honestly and sincerely expressed, and in which we fully concur. We are, therefore, at a loss to divine what cause could have moved the author to publish these Elements. It is to be found, perhaps, in the fact, that it has been a favorite project; for Mr. Silliman says, "that the materials for the work have been gradually accumulating since 1802;" though he informs us, in an extraordinary explanatory notice of his work, published in his *Journal*, on the eve of the appearance of the second volume, "that his attention was first called to the subject, by a vote of his classes in 1815." "Opus triginti annorum!" as an old compiler of a Hebrew Lexicon printed on his title-page. We always look with admiration and reverence upon this devotion to one thing, and we bestow both on the volumes before us, because they bear evidence of having been begun, at least, in 1802. During the period which has elapsed since that date, Mr. Silliman has read, heard, and seen more of chemistry than falls to the lot of most men. The list of works, therefore, to which he refers, is sufficiently extensive to convince us of his industry, while it leaves no very favorable impressions of his discrimination. Besides the great stock orators of chemistry, for the last fifty years, the author quotes Parkes and Gray, particularly where the arts are concerned. No man at all conversant with practical chemistry would think of referring to Parkes, excepting Frederick Accum, the most arrant of all chemical book-makers, whom England ever produced. We know that many of his practical details are mere creatures of his own creation. He is abundantly shallow in all things; though he does include among the half-page of his titles "Master of Arts in Yale College, Connecticut." Gray hurried his work into the world after the appearance of a few volumes of the "Dic-

tionnaire 'Technologique,' a new spring, which he opened to give freshness to his crudities. We merely mention the thing to express our surprise, that Mr. Silliman did not himself draw from that immense store-house, the "Technological Dictionary" now publishing in France. Neither this, nor that still more valuable work of Dumas, "*Chimie appliquée aux Arts*," — the two first volumes of which have long since reached our shores, — nor Chevreul, "*Leçons de Chimie, appliquée à la Teinture*," is noticed. These pure and gushing fountains of chemical information are unopened and unheeded, whilst the spurious works of Gay-Lussac are referred to with confidence. To be sure, the author tells us, a year afterwards, that he did not know that he was so doing; but this is no apology for a man, certainly the focus of chemical information at home, and who is more known abroad, than any other American chemical writer. The editor of a scientific journal ought to be so far conversant with the chemical literature of France, as to know whether Gay-Lussac had ever authorized the publication of the work, pretending to be his "*Cours*." We are greatly surprised that no reference is made to some of the latest and best works on chemistry, not only of France but of Germany, not the least among nations which have laid deep and for ever the foundations of modern analysis.

Our business is however with the work as it is, and not as it should be. What are the peculiar claims of Mr. Silliman's "*Elements*"? This is the question which interests the public. "*Its peculiarities*," as stated by the author, "*are in its arrangement*." He has thought proper to deviate from some others; though without any good reason, from one of his idols, Dr. Murray, whose arrangement he thinks "*perhaps the best that can be devised*." Every teacher must be his own judge of the arrangement fittest for conveying his knowledge to others. It is of little consequence to an instructor, whether the text-book of another is arranged in that order which he thinks best for public instruction. He may always select such portions as are suited to his purpose; and we have examples of some chemical dictionaries, with instructions for converting the *alphabetical* into a *systematic* order of study. If a man will *publish* his lectures, he is bound to follow that order, which presents the science in the most improved, systematic, and severely logical form. The only "*peculiarities in*" Mr. Silliman's "*arrangement* are, that the alkalies and

earths are presented before the metals ; and galvanism, although sketched in the beginning, is finished at the close of the work." We expected from the repeated allusions to "galvanism in the beginning," that we should find a tolerable account of that power ; at least enough of it to render intelligible common operations connected with it, and to guide us in applications of this branch of science to some of the daily operations of practical chemistry. The "sketch" however occupies about a page only. It is the most meagre and bald relation of certain facts, which we have ever met with in the whole course of our reading. We protest against this off-hand treatment of galvanism and electricity ; sciences so important in their chemical relations, and so intimately connected with many practical processes and details in the subsequent parts of the work, and in the daily operations of art. The subject has been entirely swept out from some American editions of foreign works, an act which should have received its just castigation from our author's hands. But with this renewed sanction of his own example, we fear that he attaches much less importance to the general principles of science than a learned Professor should. He has said enough, however, to have rendered an arrangement of his work, founded on the polar relations of bodies, perfectly intelligible ; and we are the more surprised therefore, that he did not adopt it. We do not advocate the introduction of the "ignitions, and deflagrations, and muscular shocks" in any part of a strictly chemical course. The presentation of such galvanic effects at the end of this work, serves only to increase its bulk. Their introduction at the end of a course of lectures, serves no other purpose except "terminating a long course of demonstrations and reasoning, with the most brilliant finish that can be desired."

As for the other "peculiarities" of arrangement, he enjoys them in common with a host of writers and makers of books who lived before the brighter days of modern chemistry. There can be certainly no reason why one who remembers the chemistry of 1802, should "break up the class of alkalis," or notice chlorine, iodine, and bromine, till after the other simple non-metallic substances and inflammables are mentioned. The arrangement of Mr. Silliman, though very unphilosophical, may be very well suited ed for the purpose of instruction. Indeed we never knew

one decidedly bad in chemistry ; because there is no difficulty, with a tolerable apparatus, in "finding our way into the mind of the pupil, and fixing there the knowledge we wish to impart," provided the "brilliancy" of the experiment is not so "striking" as to obscure the facts to be illustrated. If the arrangement of the simple substances by Mr. Silliman is unphilosophical, the order in which he states the facts, relating to the individual substances themselves, is frequently confused, and often decidedly bad. But we trust we have said enough to convince our readers, that Mr. Silliman's Elements have no particular claims on our attention, by reason of the "peculiar arrangement." We trust, too, that they are equally satisfied, that the public did not want this new offering which Mr. Silliman has laid at the foot of that edifice, which he has contributed to erect. We are sorry to see this work, on account of the fame of the author. We shall not go minutely into its details, but, glancing our eye over the work, select a few of such portions as indicate an imperfect knowledge of the subject. We would repeat at the outset an observation of his, which he applied to a competitor in the race of book-making, and to a citizen of his own state. "In chemistry, the *audivi* may give a man a good many good ideas, useful to himself; the *vidi* will still more enlarge his knowledge; but it is only the *feci* which qualifies him to instruct others."

Our remarks will be chiefly confined to the "*feci*," because here it is that the peculiar qualifications of a chemical instructor ought to break forth and illuminate the path of his pupils. *Light*, the first section of the work before us, is abundantly extended for an elementary work on chemistry. *Heat* occupies the next section. The law of expansion by heat, and contraction by cold, is quite hastily passed over. The facts are generally understood. But in stating the exceptions to the rule, instead of taking water for his first illustrations, Mr. Silliman alludes to some of the metals of which the student probably never heard. Without some explanation more than we find in the book, beginners will not readily understand the expansion of metals by cooling. We understand perfectly what the author means; but he has stated the fact broadly, as all writers have, except the practical Aikins. Many a graduate, both of Yale College and Harvard College, has been laughed at by the iron-founder

and pattern-maker, for stating, what in fact he had been taught, as in the volumes before us, that iron expands in cooling. They smile when they are told so, because they know that unless their pattern is made larger than the thing wanted, the casting will be too small. The truth is, that the exceptions of water and some metals to the law of contraction by cooling, are really no exceptions. All metals have their melting point, which, like the freezing point of water, is fixed and invariable; the only point at which the thermometer constantly, and under all circumstances, shows the same temperature. Whenever water or metals arrive at this fixed point they expand, not because they are exceptions to the common rule, but because at this point, their particles enter into new arrangements by which they occupy greater space; they crystallize, as Mr. Silliman says of water. Water, it is well known, may be cooled below its freezing point, and yet be fluid. So likewise many (we are inclined to believe all) metals may be cooled below their melting point and yet be fluid. Bismuth may be cooled thus eight degrees below, and tin, four degrees below, their melting points. So of antimony; so of iron. Yet the moment these fluid metals set or harden, their temperature rises, and for an instant they expand, simply because their particles have entered into new arrangements. The expansion and rise of temperature are but momentary; the ore immediately falls, and the dimensions contract. Now it is this momentary expansion of iron, this instantaneous and temporary enlargement, which gives the sharp and delicate impressions to its castings. But we find nothing in Mr. Silliman which would lead us to suppose any thing else, but a permanent expansion of some metals by cooling; a paradox not easily believed, that it should expand at all by this process. There is a permanent expansion of some metals, on which Mr. Silliman is unaccountably silent. We refer to the permanent extension of zinc and lead by expansion. These metals, and probably others, never regain their original dimensions by contraction. These are important facts, when we consider the frequent use of leaden pipes for conveying steam. Neither is any allusion made by Mr. Silliman to the thermometer of Breguet, one of the most delicate of all instruments for illustrating the doctrines of expansion.

There is a question relating to this subject, inserted in a

note. It betrays such a want of acquaintance with the whole law, as applied to water, that we believe it must be attributed to one of those representatives of the "Prince of the power of the air," commonly buzzing about the press. The ignorance is therefore very pardonable; and his curiosity respecting a fact, which the temperature of his own regions could probably never permit him to witness, is altogether very praiseworthy.

"Anchor ice — is it formed on the bottom of running streams, on account of the conducting power of the stones?" We again repeat, that Mr. Silliman cannot have inserted this question. He has travelled far and wide, both at home and abroad; and his curiosity is ever alive on such subjects. If anchor ice is owing to such a cause as the question suggests, we ought always to find it, whereas it is of rare occurrence. Besides, if the stones differ in temperature from the water, it is probably rather on the ascending side of the scale; they are rather warmer than colder than the water. We allow, however, that they may be colder. What then? Why, if we have learnt any thing about this affair from Mr. Silliman, it is, that the moment the water becomes colder than forty degrees, its density alters, it becomes lighter; and consequently, if the stones cool it, the particles cut their cables, slip their anchors at the bottom, and float at the top of the stream. The effect of this cooling power of the stones would be, in the formation of anchor ice, very like a good fire under the bed of the river. If Mr. Silliman had any part or lot in this question, his habits of observation and inquiry are much less severe than we have always supposed. We state then, for the information of the person who penned the query, that this anchor ice forms not on the stones only at the bottom, but on the wooden dam a few feet or inches under the surface of the water. It never forms after the streams are frozen over, nor in calm, still weather. Every windy, cold night the mill-owner is like a wave-tossed mariner; he knows that the gale is full of danger to his wheels, and he rushes to his works by dawn. Lo! every dam below him has been raised by the formation of anchor ice; and the waters, flowing backwards, are ready almost to bear his machinery away on their bosom. He looks at his own dam; — the water is thickening and gathering, and anchor ice is forming on its top, and the lands above and around him are flooded, till the mass of wa-

ters at last sweeps by in torrents, and mill and dam are borne onwards and downwards with one tremendous crash. His fears had pictured the scene which he now beholds; for he knows that the violent agitation of the waters by the gale, helps to cool down the whole mass to thirty-two degrees, and then he is confident that anchor ice will form. We have frequent illustrations of the truth of our explanation of the formation of anchor ice. Let your tumbler stand full of water in a very cold chamber all night, clap your tooth-brush into it in the morning, and you will see anchor ice form on it immediately. We merely add, that thousands have performed the experiment with success, unconscious of its connexion with the subject contained in a Note in Silliman's "*Elements*," vol. i. p. 50.

Our limits compel us to pass over some other things, worthy of notice, in the section on Heat. Nor can we spend more time on Attraction, than merely to say, that it is quite too extended for an elementary chemical work. We hasten to the section on Affinity, the chemist's legitimate ground. We are truly delighted that Mr. Silliman has here followed the example of Turner in separating the facts of definite proportions from the theory of atoms. It is remarkable, that almost all, we may say all writers, before Turner, blended these separate and distinct subjects, and left on clear and well ordered minds the impression, that definite proportion was something indefinitely connected with the atomic theory. Most of the common treatises on chemistry rather darken our ideas, by mystifying the atomic theory. Not so Mr. Turner. He comes to the subject with ideas and statements so clear, that it is impossible to read his account of this matter, without being fully convinced that the doctrine of definite proportion is a series of undeniable and established facts, and, that the atomic theory accounts for these facts, in the most beautiful, philosophical, and perfectly satisfactory manner. But this is not the only praise of Turner. He has unfolded all those mysteries which have so long astounded Berzelius; and shown that they are in perfect accordance with the doctrine he so admirably illustrates, and are just what we should anticipate. While then we are glad that Professor Silliman has followed such an illustrious example, in separating facts from theory, we express our unfeigned regret, that he has not made some approach to that inimitable condensation and

elucidation of these subjects, which characterize the Professor of the London University. There is not, in the whole compass of English chemical literature, any chapter on Affinity comparable to Dr. Turner's, and Mr. Silliman would have honored himself by transferring it to his own pages unaltered. Where Turner illustrates, and thus leaves clearly and distinctly on our minds the impression of the fact that bodies combine in multiple, or submultiple, proportions, Mr. Silliman states a law, printed in small capitals, which reminds us of the weary days when we first turned our attention to this subject. Without the explanation which follows, we never should suspect that the law of multiples was contained in the sentence. Without the illustration from Dr. Turner, so judiciously introduced, it would be an unfathomable mystery. Perhaps we are very obtuse. The riddles of Berzelius, to which we have alluded, are deemed worthy a place in a page of text; Dr. Turner's explanation is crowded into a note. We are highly gratified to find it even there.

We must leave then the farther consideration of the General Powers or Agents concerned in chemical changes. Let us turn our attention to some facts stated, either in confirmation of the principles there advanced, or under the head of the individual substances. In illustrating the effects of quantity on affinity the author states, (Volume i. p. 155,) "Muriate of soda 2, oxide of lead 1, there is no effect in twenty-four hours; but with muriate of soda 1, and oxide of lead 3 or 4, decomposition follows in twenty-four hours, and muriate of lead is formed, and soda or its subcarbonate evolved; this fact is the foundation of the manufacture of soda from common salt." There are two mistakes here, one as to the quantity and time of decomposition, and one respecting the application of the principle. Let the Professor take salt 2, litharge 1; triturate them in a mortar, gradually moistening them with a little warm water, and in less than an hour the decomposition is complete, and a perfectly white homogeneous paste of muriate of lead is formed. "*Feci.*" The effect is still better produced by previously dissolving the salt in warm water. But be careful not to evolve subcarbonate of soda, which decomposes the muriate of lead, while the caustic soda will not. This decomposition never was the foundation of making soda from common salt, and cannot be, as any one will readily perceive, when he reflects on the immense con-

sumption of soda, and the very little demand for fused muriate of lead under the name of patent yellow. This soda process was one among the many reported to the French Directory, and which, like all the others except "No. 8," which Mr. Silliman relates in his Second Volume, page 51, are now entirely abandoned.

Our readers would have no patience with us, were we to point out the numerous errors in these volumes, relating to the application of chemistry to the arts. The sulphuric acid process,—which he quotes from Parkes,—has long ago been given up, as Mr. Silliman will find in Gray. The objection to the use of iron cylinders in making nitric acid is of no consequence to one who understands what ought to have been explained under galvanism, or thermo-electricity. We obtain as pure nitric acid in iron as in earthen vessels. If we make a good article, strong nitric acid, the iron is hardly attacked by it, as it distils over concentrated. If we make common aqua fortis, we have only to heat to redness our apparatus. Our author seems not to be aware of the modifications produced by heat in the electrical relations of iron. For Becquerel has established the fact, that the body which is negative with cold iron, becomes positive in contact with iron heated to redness. The theory of the formation of sulphuric acid is untenable, as Mr. Silliman may find by making the experiment himself, "*feci*;" or by consulting the papers of Gay-Lussac. Under the article "Chloride of Lime," no caution is given respecting the heat produced by the combination between the lime and chlorine, which materially affects the product. We refer Mr. Silliman to Morin's Memoir, (*Ann. de Chim. et Phys.*, *Fevrier*, 1828.) Under "Muriate of Tin," we are directed to keep some metallic tin, in the solution, to preserve the state of proto-muriate. The effect of this is to deoxydate the tin already in solution, and it separates in metallic crystals, often four inches long, "*feci*"; and the fact was long ago noticed by Buchloz.

Truth compels us to say, that in every thing relating to chemical arts, in this work, there is a lamentable deficiency of correct information. The "*audivi*" is in almost infinite proportion to the "*feci*." We have been compelled to notice these things, because it has been stated, that the practical facts in this work are of a superior character, and the author himself attaches no small importance to them.

We repeat, therefore, that this work does Mr. Silliman no credit. An extended syllabus of his course would have answered every purpose for those for whom the work professes to be specially designed. We have, therefore, only to give our parting advice to the author, and discharge our conscience. "The attempt has been made," says Professor Silliman, "to unite copiousness with condensation." In the first, there has been admirable success; in the last a total failure. We therefore advise him; 1. To strike out the whole Introductory Lecture, which he has favored the public with on another occasion, and all the Notes; 2. To omit the Practical Questions, and Rules of Philosophizing; 3. To give up the pictures. We have them in Dr. Hare's "Compendium," where they rightly belong, and in his "Descriptive Catalogue"; and lastly, in Mr. Silliman's "Journal." This fourth impression gives them, therefore, rather an indistinct and time-worn face, and they illustrate nothing which the text has not already explained; 4. To refer his readers to Rose, for analysis, and to advise Mr. Shepherd to publish his Essay by itself. It does him some credit. If, however, our advice is not kindly taken, we must throw the author on himself. He states among other "peculiarities" of his book, that the most important parts are printed "in small capitals and italics," "that they may for the most part be read through in connexion, with the omission of the other parts, and thus a smaller book is comprised within a larger." Would that this were the only great book containing a little one. We hope, therefore, that if ever a second edition is called for, Mr. Silliman will favor us with the "smaller book."

ART. V.—*Autobiography of Sir Walter Scott, Bart.*
Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 1831. 12mo. pp. 288.

THIS volume is composed of several autobiographical notices which Sir Walter has furnished, amounting to 137 pages, and an Appendix of 151 pages, put in for the purpose of making up a sizable and salable book. All this comes forth under the attractive title of the "Autobiography of Sir Walter Scott." If the book related to any other man, we should quarrel with "the trade" for enticing the unwary purchaser to buy goods by a false invoice. But every thing

professing to detail circumstances connected with the mode of life and illustrating the character of the distinguished Baronet, has an interest so deep and intrinsic, that we feel delighted with scanty supplies for the gratification of our good-natured curiosity. The contents of the book, moreover, though not strictly what they purport to be, claim our attention as being, with two or three unimportant exceptions, from Sir Walter's own most prolific pen. "The Autobiography" is one of the pleasantest specimens of that kind of composition that we have ever met. We remember nothing except the *Dichtung und Wahrheit* of Goëthe, which is at all comparable to it. The style is easy and flowing, and the author has managed that most difficult of literary enterprises, the telling of his own story, with admirable adroitness and success. He has steered through the happy medium, leaving excessive egotism on one side, and excessive reserve at an equal distance on the other. The language is pure, simple, and appropriate. The reader of the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" must have been struck with the Roman stateliness of style, in which the illustrious author narrates his own, very simple and unimposing adventures. The ill success of his passion for the clergyman's daughter is told in strains as solemn, in periods as balanced and stately, as the defeat of an imperial army, or the invasion of Rome by the barbarians of the North. Sir Walter's story is just the opposite, and of course vastly superior, in its general air and style.

The character of this most noble writer is worthy to be held in everlasting remembrance. His benevolence, his good humor, his practical sense and sound philosophy, blended with an imagination as powerful and varied as Shakspeare's, a pure taste, and a spotless morality, have made the character of Sir Walter as delightful in the contemplation, as it is rare and difficult in the attainment. The picture of this character, drawn with skill and beauty, in the Autobiography, gives us a new, or rather a more distinct view of the author, than we had been able to form for ourselves before. Sir Walter's unrivalled powers as a novelist have been too often the theme of eulogy, to be spoken of in this brief notice; but we cannot refrain from remarking, that the calmness and conscious strength, manifested in all his works, form a singular contrast to the stormy eloquence, which

generally passes for fine writing, in the novels of his successors and imitators. Take, for instance, *any* descriptive chapter, from *any* one of the Waverley novels, and compare it with the best of "Pelham," "The Disowned," or *any* of that false and glittering school. The one is immortal, for it is founded on nature; the other is the mere ephemeral frothiness, which the first breath of a deliberate public opinion will dissipate for ever. The versatility of Sir Walter's genius is no where more pleasingly displayed than in these charming pages, which are written with such singular appropriateness, that the most fastidious critic cannot find a fault. The candor with which he speaks of his less fortunate contemporaries, and the good nature with which he acknowledges his obligations to some of them, are no less an honor to his head than to his heart. The public will duly appreciate these traits, forming, as they do, so marked a distinction from the jealousies and unworthy broils that have too often disgraced the literary character. The following remarks we venture to quote, because of their practical application to the condition of every man who aspires to the honors and subjects himself to the tribulations of authorship.

"In the first place, upon considering the lives and fortunes of persons who had given themselves up to literature, or to the task of pleasing the public, it seemed to me, that the circumstances which chiefly affected their happiness and character, were those from which Horace has bestowed upon authors the epithet of the Irritable Race. It requires no depth of philosophic reflection to perceive, that the petty warfare of Pope with the Dunces of his period, could not have been carried on without his suffering the most acute torture, such as a man must endure from mosquitos, by whose stings he suffers agony, although he can crush them in his grasp by myriads. Nor is it necessary to call to memory the many humiliating instances in which men of the greatest genius have, to avenge some pitiful quarrel, made themselves ridiculous during their lives, to become the still more degraded objects of pity to future times.

"Upon the whole, as I had no pretension to the genius of the distinguished persons who had fallen into such errors, I concluded there could be no occasion for imitating them in these mistakes, or what I considered such; and in adopting literary pursuits as the principal occupation of my future life, I resolved, if possible, to avoid those *weaknesses of temper* which seemed to have most easily beset my more celebrated predecessors.

"With this view, it was my first resolution to keep as far as was in my power abreast of society, continuing to maintain my place in general company, without yielding to the very natural temptation of narrowing myself to what is called literary society. By doing so, I imagined I should escape the besetting sin of listening to language which, from one motive or other, ascribes an undue degree of consequence to literary pursuits, as if they were indeed the business, rather than the amusement of life. The opposite course can only be compared to the injudicious conduct of one who pampers himself with cordial and luscious draughts, until he is unable to endure wholesome biters. Like Gil Blas, therefore, I resolved to stick by the society of my *commis*, instead of seeking that of a more literary cast, and to maintain my general interest in what was going on around me, reserving the man of letters for the desk and library."

The papers in the Appendix, which form the greater part of the volume, are mostly pleasant disquisitions on subjects of antiquarian lore, with which Sir Walter is so familiar. They are agreeably diversified with interesting anecdotes, so that the attention of the reader never wearies. "*Nihil tetigit quod non ornavit.*" On the whole, Sir Walter must be allowed to stand at the head of that comparatively small class of authors, who understand *how* to write as well as *what* to write.

ART. VI. — *Lectures on Christian Theology*; by GEORGE CHRISTIAN KNAPP. Translated by LEONARD WOODS, Jun., Abbot Resident at the Theological Seminary in Andover, Massachusetts. In 2 vols. Vol. I. New York. G. & C. & H. Carvill. 1831. 8vo. pp. 539.

THIS is a course of "*Lectures on Christian Doctrines conformed to the System of the Evangelical Church,*" as is announced on the original title-page. "*Evangelical*" here means plainly "*Lutheran,*" though it is often, if not usually, the appellation of the whole Protestant Church, as distinguished from the Catholic. It is usual, perhaps necessary, for the lecturer on this subject at the German universities to follow the system of religion adopted by the state; even though it be only to point out its errors, or to disguise it in

his own philosophical notions; which last is more frequently the case. Here, however, we have no such abstruse and labored philosophical system, but a plain, honest, and clear defence of the Lutheran doctrines.

Dr. Knapp is the editor of the well-known edition of the New Testament which bears his name. His bent was to philosophical research, and the character of his mind was simple and direct. This is seen in the work before us. His plan is (according to the Preface of the German editor) to draw the doctrines directly from the Scriptures, to explain them and show their practical tendency, and to trace their history, especially in later times. This is done faithfully and with much learning; though of course the Scriptures are understood according to the peculiar views of the author, which some may think a little old-fashioned. His notion of Inspiration is that it was "an extraordinary divine influence, by which the teachers of religion were instructed what and how they should write and speak, while discharging the duties of their office." (pp. 108, 109.)

He remarks, that

"Our Saviour promised his disciples an extraordinary divine influence to attend them constantly and secure them against error, and that when they spoke under this divine impulse, it would not be they who spoke, but the Holy Spirit."

"Now," he continues, "if the Apostles were assisted in this manner in their discourses which were merely oral, and of course of a very temporary and limited advantage, how much more should they be assisted in their written instructions, which were destined to exert a more lasting and extended influence!" p. 110.

He supposes that the Holy Spirit "revealed to the Apostles many things of which Christ had not spoken, (John xvi, 12 - 15), reminded them of all that Christ had taught them in order that they might be secure from mistake in their teaching even with respect to knowledge which they might have acquired in the unaided use of their own faculties; and himself instructed them in every thing necessary for the discharge of the duties of their office (John xiv, 26); that he revealed to them future events (John xvi, 13); endowed them, when necessary, with miraculous powers (Mark xvi, 17); corrected their mistakes and imparted to them new instructions when called for (John xvi, 12, xiv, 26.) So

that whatever the Apostles taught, may be regarded as coming from God." p. 111.

"These promises of special divine assistance were not, indeed, originally made to Mark and Luke, who were not Apostles. But each of them was the disciple and assistant of an Apostle. Their writings, therefore, being either dictated or sanctioned by inspired Apostles must be regarded as possessing divine authority." p. 111.

Of the Old Testament he says, "The prophets themselves acknowledged that whatever they taught, whether by speaking or writing, was dictated to them by God, or the Divine Spirit, and was published by his command," (p. 114;) and he considers all the historical books as the productions of prophets (p. 115.)

Dr. Knapp's views of the Scriptures were such as tended to class him with the more orthodox German divines; and therefore we are disposed to give little credit to the insinuations which have been made, that other considerations than those of conscience had a share in the change which took place in his views after he first wrote these Lectures. Unfortunately for him, however, (at least so far as any have hence taken occasion to charge him with interested motives) this change occurred nearly at the time of an edict published by the Prussian government in reference to the new and bold, and certainly dangerous opinions of Bahrdt and others. The points on which he grew more orthodox are stated, in the Preface of the German editor, to be the doctrine of the Trinity, the doctrine of angels, the demoniacal possessions in the New Testament, the prophecies in the Old Testament, and the duration of future punishment.

Dr. Knapp died at Halle in the year 1825. The Lectures which we have here noticed, were delivered for the first time in the year 1789, and repeated with the alterations above mentioned until 1810, when they were read for the last time at the particular request of the students. We notice here a slight inaccuracy, or obscurity in the Translator's Preface, where he gives us to understand (page xxi.) that Dr. Knapp continued to read these Lectures till shortly before his death. This does not agree with page xvii of the original, where a distinction is to be made between the Lectures on Christian Doctrines and those on Biblical Theology, which last were read for many years after the first were laid aside. The fact

is of no moment excepting to show the true date of the Lectures, and, in a degree, the value which the author himself put upon them. With characteristic modesty he says of them also in notes written during his last illness ; " In the Lectures on Christian Doctrines there are perhaps some passages which may still be of use." From which opinion we think no one who reads these Lectures will dissent, however they may differ from the author in his theological views.

The translation is very fair. We notice, however, some inaccuracies ; such as, page 425, tenth line from the bottom, where the obscurity occasioned by the substitution of the word *circumstances* for *circumstance* led us to refer to the original. We apprehend the author's meaning to be, " The immediate occasion under Providence of more fully developing the doctrine concerning angels was this." There is certainly some inaccuracy of expression here even in the original ; but as it stands in the translation, we are led to look for an enumeration of several circumstances, which we do not find.

Some new words, too, are introduced into the English Translation, which we hold to be impolitic in a translator ; as readers will be very prone to attribute that to ignorance, or at best to negligence or accident, which in another place might have passed for philological invention. Such instances are, page 43, " rubrick," by which the translator does not mean " a direction printed in red ink in a prayer-book or book of law," but " a division," and which, though well understood by a German, conveys no meaning, or a false one, to a mere English reader ; page 61, " the institute of Moses" for " the institution of Moses" ; and, page 444, we read that though the teachers of the Christian church forbade the actual worship of the angels, they permitted " a *civil* homage to be paid them" ; which might be supposed to mean a courteous reverence thought to be due to them. Referring to the original, we found the meaning to be, that the honor paid the angels was to be considered not a religious but a civil duty, a distinction sufficiently obscure at the best ; and we do not wonder that the good Catholics thought it the shortest as well as safest way to honor the angels to the best of their ability, without troubling their consciences farther about the matter.

On the whole, for so dry a thing as a translation of a dry German book has a right to be, it flows very smoothly ; and

no one who knows by experience the difficulties of such an undertaking, will be disposed to deny the merit of the translator.

ART. VII. — *Poem, delivered before the Society of United Brothers at Brown University, on the Day preceding Commencement, September 6, 1831. With other Poems.* By N. P. WILLIS. New York. J. & J. Harper. 1831. 8vo. pp. 76.

MR. WILLIS began his poetical career at an early age, and soon became deservedly popular. It was a new thing to hear such beautiful warbling from the cloisters of a college; and the listeners were enchanted by so young a voice, tuned to subjects so holy. There was a singular tone of grace and sweetness in his Scriptural sketches, and of force and truth in some of his other occasional pieces, — the “Burial of Arnold,” for example, — which won the ear and heart of all, and allowed no one to doubt that here was one to whom nature had given the power and made the offer of future distinction. We know not how it has happened that his improvement has not kept the promise of his beginning; but, in sober fact, the sweet pieces which he wrote at college remain unsurpassed, if not unequalled, by what he has done in maturer life. It is not our business to account for this; we have only to regret the fact. We have still the same vividness of minute description, truth and purity of sentiment, gentle and tasteful felicity of expression, which first attracted regard, and which we hoped he never would lose; and the same mannerism and petty affectation, which we trusted experience would remove. We do not find that his powers have expanded with their maturity, or that they have gained any wider capacity for high tasks, such as should be laid upon the riper shoulders of the poet. It is pleasant, indeed, to hear him touch his harp just as he did when we first heard him; but we should be better pleased if we could find that he had added to his power over its chords, and that he was drawing from them, with a bolder and more masculine hand, a more varied and enterprising accompaniment.

We fear that all readers will feel as we do, that the present volume adds nothing to its author's reputation. Several

of the pieces have been printed before; but we think that none of them will be accounted among his best, though the two Scriptural pieces have touches which remind us favorably of his happiest days. Of the longest poem, that delivered before a literary society of Brown University, we hardly know what to say. If we dared, we would say that we do not understand it. It probably has a design; but there is such a mist, either upon it or upon our minds, that we have tried to penetrate it in vain. We have felt in reading it just as we have done in looking down from Pine Orchard in the morning upon the vast country extended below, covered with beautiful wreaths and waving mountains of vapor on which the sun lay brightly; we knew that there were cities and rivers and rich plains and fine hills beneath, but they were hidden under the mist;—here and there only peeped through a hill-summit or a tall tree, like the tops of the tallest thoughts which struggle up through the fair fog of Mr. Willis's blank verse. We get glimpses of noble sentiments and fine religious philosophy, and are left only to wish that the whole prospect were cleared up, so that we might discern it plainly. As it is, it seems to us, in spite of its beauties, to have been eminently unsuited to the occasion and purpose for which it was prepared; and this, not only because of the effort of mind required to comprehend its purpose, but because also of the measure. It is difficult to give satisfaction in the recitation of a poem, even when the hearer's ear is assisted and bribed by the melody of rhyme. Without that aid, he is likely to cry out in the words of Pope,

“It is not poetry, but prose run mad.”

“The Leper” is a more successful poem. It is truly beautiful. So is “The Healing of the Daughter of Jairus,” and, “The Wife's Appeal.” “Parrhasius” pleases us much less, and also “The Dying Alchemist.” But they both have touches of great felicity. Thus, what can be finer in its kind than the picture with which “Parrhasius” opens.

“There stood an unsold captive in the mart,
A gray-haired and majestical old man,
Chained to a pillar. It was almost night,
And the last seller from his place had gone,
And not a sound was heard but of a dog
Craunching beneath the stall a refuse bone,

Or the dull echo from the pavement rung
As the faint captive changed his weary feet." p. 34.

There are many of these happy sketches in the book. Here is another, which closes the description of the Italian scholar reading.

" Asleep
 Upon the carpet couched a graceful hound
 Of a rare breed ; and as his master gave
 A murmur of delight at some sweet line,
 He raised his slender head, and kept his eye
 Upon him till the pleasant smile had passed
 From his mild lips, and then he slept again." p. 43.

The following passage closes with another example.

" Freshly the cool breath of the coming eve
 Stole through the lattice, and the dying girl
 Felt it upon her forehead. She had lain
 Since the hot noontide in a breathless trance,
 Her thin pale fingers clasped within the hand
 Of the heart-broken Ruler, and her breast,
 Like the dead marble, white and motionless.
 The shadow of a leaf lay on her lips,
 And as it stirred with the awakening wind,
 The dark lids lifted from her languid eyes,
 And her slight fingers moved, and heavily
 She turned upon her pillow. He was there —
 The same loved, tireless watcher, and she looked
 Into his face, until her sight grew dim
 With the fast-filling tears, and, with a sigh
 Of tremulous weakness murmuring his name,
 She gently drew his hand upon her lips,
 And kissed it as she wept. The old man sunk
 Upon his knees, and in the drapery
 Of the rich curtains buried up his face —
 And when the twilight fell, the silken folds
 Stirr'd with his prayer, but the slight hand he held
 Had ceased its pressure, and he could not hear
 In the dead, utter silence, that a breath
 Came through her nostrils, and her temples gave
 To his nice touch no pulse, and at her mouth
 He held the lightest curl that on her neck
 Lay with a mocking beauty, and his gaze
 Ached with its deathly stillness." pp. 65, 66.

There is great beauty in this portrait of the Saviour.

“ On a rock,
 With the broad moonlight falling on his brow,
 He stood and taught the people. At his feet
 Lay his small scrip, and pilgrim's scallop-shell,
 And staff, for they had waited by the sea
 Till he came o'er from Gadarene, and prayed
 For his wont teachings as he came to land.
 His hair was parted meekly on his brow,
 And the long curls from off his shoulders fell
 As he leaned forward earnestly, and still
 The same calm cadence, passionless and deep,
 And in his looks the same mild majesty,
 And in his mien the sadness mixed with power,
 Filled them with love and wonder.” pp. 66, 67.

These are specimens of the manner in which Mr. Willis certainly excels; and when we think of what he has done and is capable of doing in this way, we cannot help saying that there are but two things which can prevent him from taking a permanent place among the writers of his country; namely, indolence and affectation. A lecture on indolence it is not necessary to deliver at the present time, nor to prove that it must be an inevitable barrier to fame. But respecting affectation we must be allowed to add a few words, both for the sake of the author himself, and for the sake of other young bards who may be led astray, as all young people are exposed to be, by the same false glitter which has beguiled him. If we were asked to name in one word what is the source of the blemishes which are so obvious in his verses, and which detract so unfortunately from their charms, we should say unhesitatingly, it is affectation. When he is natural and simple, he is beautiful and touching; when he tries to be better than this, and becomes affected, he displeases. And we are sorry to observe, that this blemish is so frequent, — sometimes tainting the whole conception of a piece, and often directing to quaintness and effeminacy in the choice of words.

“ He was born
 Taller than he might walk beneath the stars.”

“ Orators
 Of times gone by that made them.”

“ It is thy life and mine! —
 Thou in thyself, and I in thee, *mispri-son*
 Gifts like a circle of bright stars *unrisen*.”

This was certainly written, not for the reason, but for the rhyme. We do not know to what to attribute such slovenly negligence of versification as the following examples afford.

"Water no quality in its covert springs."

"Duly and cheerfully to their toil, and up."

"The deathlike images of the dark away."

"Fire, and wind, and water, do his will."

These lines and many more such have no claim to be called verse.

Mr. Willis has a trick of harping on some favorite word, till it becomes painfully wearisome. Thus, having heard the commendation bestowed on the great poet for the picturesqueness of his epithet *aslant* as applied to the light, he has adopted it, and uses it on all occasions. The light is always *slanting*.

"Struggled aslant the stained and broken panes."

"Sunrise was slanting on the city gates."

"Where the slant light fell on them."

"Of moonlight slanting to the marble floor,"

A still more striking example occurs in the use of the verb *to lift*, as a neuter verb, which we suppose to be unauthorized, — a new poetic license.

"The narrow walls expand, and spread away
Into a kingly palace, and the roof
Lifts to the sky."

"My hand feels skilful, and the shadows lift
From my waked spirit."

"The dark lids lifted from her languid eyes."

In one passage he says very happily, describing the gradual approach of morning,

"Hour by hour,
Till the stars *melted* in the flush of morn."

But not satisfied with this, he soon spoils it by applying the word to the *path* of the morning star ;

"The glorious planet mounted on,
Melting her way into the upper sky."

But enough. Mr. Willis is capable of ridding himself of all these faults, and rising above all his affectations, and taking a stand of unquestionable excellence. We hope that he will be faithful to himself, and do it.

ART. VIII. — *The Coronal; a Collection of Miscellaneous Pieces, written at Various Times.* By MRS. CHILD, Author of "Hobomok," "The Rebels," "The Mother's Book," "The Girl's Own Book," &c. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1832. 18mo. pp. 285.

MRS. CHILD dedicates this little work to the author of "Hope Leslie." We like to see and mention together the names of two of our accomplished countrywomen, who have always seemed to us to bear a sufficient resemblance to each other in the character of their minds and writings to be thus associated. Miss Sedgwick possesses the advantage of having composed more sustained works, and of having devoted her fine powers more exclusively to a single department of literary effort. Mrs. Child has attempted less at a time, and distributed her industry much more variously. We offer them, however, our respectful greetings in the same salutation, feeling assured that neither of them will be offended by being associated with so estimable a companion. They remind us of what Ariosto says of the ladies who honorably distinguished themselves in his time :

"For many, laying silk and sampler down,
With the melodious Muses, to allay
Their thirst at Aganippe's well, have gone,
And still are going ; who so fairly speed,
That we more theirs than they our labor need."

In one great respect, indeed, this description is not applicable to the female writers of our own times. They do not sacrifice in the cause of letters any of those good household cares and affections that are so graceful in woman. They occupy no professor's chair at the universities, but fill excellently that which stands at their own firesides. Their Aganippe flows fast by their homes. Their acquirements and taste and diligence, in making them more widely celebrated and useful, rather embellish than interfere with domestic worth and the plainest duties.

Many of the pieces in this Collection have appeared before, and received the favorable notice of the public. Others are new. They are of course of unequal merits. Several are eminently beautiful. We confess ourselves most pleased with the shortest, such as "Spring," and "Thoughts," the

lines on Vanderlyn's Picture, with which the volume begins, and "The First and Last Book" with which it ends. There is a thoughtfulness and imagination and feeling in these, that may be sure of taking effect, because they are natural, and will awaken correspondent sentiments in other minds. The narratives seem to us far less agreeable; especially,—if we may be allowed to express a special dislike,—that of the "Rival Brothers." Unmingled and incredible atrocity is a bad subject for any pen. One can almost find it in his heart to be glad that it should be unsuccessful in the hands of an amiable woman, like the author of the "Coronal."

We should be glad to indulge ourselves by quoting some of the happiest passages in the volume, but will select only one, hoping that our readers will seek out the rest for themselves.

"We need amusements in the decline of life, even more than in its infancy; and where shall we find any so safe, satisfactory, and dignified, as battery and barometer, telescope and prism? Electric powers may be increased with less danger than man's ambition; it is far safer to weigh the air than a neighbour's motives; it is more disquieting to watch tempests lowering in the political horizon, than it is to gaze at volcanoes in the moon; and it is much easier to separate and unite the colors in a ray of light, than it is to blend the many colored hues of truth, turned out of their course by the sharp corners of angry controversy." p. 85.

The paragraph is from a very pretty essay on "The Blessed Influence of the Studies of Nature."

We have discovered here and there faults of haste and inadvertence. We do not mention them in order to show our impartiality or our acuteness, but with the hope that so good a writer as Mrs. Child will not allow herself habitually to fall into them. Such are, for instance, the last line but one in the stanzas on Caius Marius,

"Some towering thoughts still rear on high,"

and

"She *whom* I told you reminded me." p. 128.

Such expressions as the following, we must also take the liberty to say, are quite unworthy of her taste, and would have been readily rejected by her more deliberate judgment.

"He that lives only for fame, will find that happiness and renown are scarcely *speaking acquaintance*." p. 84.

"It is the fashion in this philosophic day to laugh at Romance, and *cut all acquaintance* with sentiment." p. 156.

We think that this lady possesses talents, to which nothing that she has hitherto written has done full justice. We would have her take more pains in elaborating her compositions, and attempt greater things.

ART. IX. — *Collections of the Maine Historical Society.*
Vol. I. Portland. 1831. 8vo. pp. 416.

THE labors of Historical Societies have contributed much towards developing the early history of our country. To them the public is indebted for the preservation of valuable documents which were fast passing into "the receptacle of things lost on earth," and for the compilation of memoirs from original materials, which without their aid would never have seen the light. A spirit of research has grown out of their influence, the results of which may be discerned in the volumes published under their auspices, and in the numerous local histories that have appeared from time to time. In these publications the general historian must hereafter seek his materials; to them he will be traced by his readers, and by them made to stand or fall.

The volume before us is a fair specimen of what may be accomplished by these associations. It is readily perceived by the perusal of the valuable articles which it contains, that no adequate idea of the early history of the eastern portion of New England can be formed without a knowledge of what is here for the first time brought to the light. A history of the District of Maine (as it then was) was prepared several years ago by a distinguished gentleman, one of the Presidents of the Massachusetts Historical Society; but so limited was the research of that period, that even a superficial examination of the present volume is sufficient to satisfy any one of the imperfection of that work. Tried by this standard, Sullivan's "History" (to which we refer) is replete with errors of fact, that must for ever extinguish its pretensions to the reputation of a good authority on the subjects of

which it treats. And so must it fare with any publication of general history, whose author has not qualified himself for the task by a rigid examination of the only true sources of historical accuracy, — original documents and local information.

The present volume consists of fourteen distinct articles, the principal one of which is the *First Part of a History of Portland*, and of the other early settlements in the vicinity of that flourishing town, communicated by William Willis, Esq., the Recording Secretary of the Society. This portion of the work has been likewise published in a distinct volume; it comprises the events of a period commencing with the discovery of New England and the first settlements in Maine, and coming down to the close of the seventeenth century. It is impossible within the limits to which we are restricted, to do justice to the high claims which the labors of Mr. Willis have on the public regard. Their value will be estimated, doubtless, more truly in that portion of the country whose history they illustrate; but we are persuaded that every scholar and general reader to whom minuteness of research is not irksome, will find a rich repast in the clear and satisfactory elucidation of a portion of New England annals hitherto buried in complete obscurity. Maine was so long regarded as a mere appendage to the Bay Colony, and withal as a remote and almost barbarous region, that the writers of history were content to furnish very meagre notices of its settlement and growth. It is in fact scarcely known at this period even to its own citizens, that a colonial government was there formed at about the same time as the other original jurisdictions in New England, which entitled it to a respectable rank among them. The present publication must have the effect to set the public right on this subject. It is well fitted not only to dissipate the ignorance and prejudice of which there is so much reason to complain, but to correct the false statements in relation to the first inhabitants of Maine, into which some of the early Puritan writers have fallen. Having been chiefly of the Church of England, and attached to the royal party during the civil wars and the protectorate, they were peculiarly liable to be misrepresented by their brethren of the other colonies. To those readers who are not resolved to shut their eyes against the imperfections of the Puritan fathers, this volume will afford some food for reflection, not only in relation to the religion, but the government, which

they were desirous should be appreciated by their less powerful neighbours.

It appears from Mr. Willis's part of the volume, that Portland, which occupies a peninsula on Casco Bay, called by the Indians *Machigony*, and afterwards successively Cleeves's and Munjoy's Neck, was at first comprised in a large township named Casco, which embraced most of the settlements on the Bay. In 1658, this name was superseded by that of Falmouth, under which the peninsula was included until the year 1786, when the separate incorporation of Portland was made. The peninsula received its first inhabitants from the neighbouring Cape, in 1632, and had a slow but steady growth. It was checked, however, by the hostilities of the Indians towards the close of that century, by whom it was twice laid waste, viz. in 1676 and 1690. The loss of the town records during that period, supposed to have been carried away or destroyed by the enemy, has rendered the labor of Mr. Willis far more embarrassing and difficult than it would otherwise have been; and yet he has been enabled to supply their place so fully by means of means of various original documents, that the deficiency is hardly perceptible. We would gladly make liberal extracts from the work, did our limits permit; and, moreover, the reader will be better satisfied, we think, by a perusal of the volume itself. The following notice of Mr. Burroughs, a minister of Falmouth, who was executed for witchcraft at Salem, deserves to be quoted out of justice to the memory of that unfortunate man, and to his posterity. He was graduated at Harvard College in 1670, and was settled at Falmouth about four years after. The inhabitants were dispersed by the Indian war the following year, and Mr. Burroughs did not resume his labors until 1683. Mr. Willis says,

"George Burroughs returned to the ministry here in 1683. The first notice of his return that we find, is in June of that year, when at the request of the town he relinquished a hundred and seventy acres of land which had been granted to him previous to the war. In their application for this purpose they offered to give him a hundred acres 'further off,' for the quantity relinquished, but Burroughs replied, 'as for the land already taken away, we were welcome to it, and if twenty acres of the fifty above expressed, would pleasure us, he freely gave it to us, not desiring any land any where else, nor any thing

else in consideration thereof.' This disinterestedness places the character of Mr. Burroughs in a very amiable light, which nothing can be found during the whole course of his ministry here to impair. . . . There has nothing survived Mr. Burroughs, either in his living or dying, that casts any reproach upon his character; and although he died the victim of a fanaticism as wicked and stupid as any which has ever been countenanced in civilized society, and which for a time prejudiced his memory, yet his reputation stands redeemed in a more enlightened age from any blemish." pp. 174, 175.

The other articles in the volume are brief notices of the towns of Limerick and Wells; various original papers in relation to the government of Maine before its purchase by Massachusetts; two selections from the manuscripts of the late Governor Lincoln, relating to the Indian languages, and the Catholic Missions in Maine; and, finally, Letters written by Arnold during the expedition to Quebec in 1775, together with a Journal of the same expedition, compiled by President Allen. The following remarks on the dialect spoken by the Norridgewock Indians (who dwelt on the upper waters of the Kennebec) are from the Lincoln manuscripts.

"The most remarkable property of the Norridgewock tongue is its unbounded susceptibility of composition, which rendered it copious and expressive. That this tribe had some rule of formation or composition of words, not in use with us, appears from the fact that in their long intercourse with the French and English, they very rarely adopted words from either, and even when they had no personal knowledge of the objects to be represented by vocal sounds, they preserved themselves as a distinct people with all that pertinacity with which they have clung to their other habits of life, and retained their own dress for thought as faithfully as they did their peculiar garb. They formed words from domestic materials having no analogy in sound or structure with those by which the stranger presented his ideas and images to the ear and the mind. The Penobscots, in like manner to this day, have preserved the spirit of their language, and have not suffered it to be corrupted or changed, although they have for centuries, nearly, been familiar with English and French. Thus they have their Indian names for elephant, lion, and a great diversity of objects, unknown to them, except through the medium of verbal or pictured representation." p. 312.

The most distinguished Catholic Missionary in Maine, was

Father Râle, who lived among the Norridgewocks a great number of years. His tragical end, occasioned by his supposed hostility to the inhabitants of New England, is described by Governor Lincoln in an interesting manner, and followed by some very sensible remarks which show that the good *Father* had more piety than sound judgment. We can only refer our readers to the passage, — pages 336 – 339.

Many of the papers in relation to Arnold's bold and hazardous expedition through the forests and morasses of Maine into Canada, are curious and entertaining, and by some readers will be preferred, doubtless, to the other materials of the volume. They were furnished by Aaron Burr, of New York, (formerly Vice-President,) who was in the expedition.

We cannot close our remarks without commending the typographical beauty, and the neatness and good taste so apparent in this very acceptable book. It affords a very striking contrast in this respect to the homely beginnings of the Historical Society of Massachusetts towards the close of the last century, a society worthy of imitation in its active and successful labors.

ART. X. — *The Library of the Old English Prose Writers.*

Vol. III. — *Works of SIR THOMAS BROWNE.* Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1831. 16mo. pp. xxxii and 304.

SIR THOMAS BROWNE seems to have been more generally read and esteemed than most, or perhaps any, of the Old English Prose Writers, as they are commonly called, which may be ascribed partly to his peculiar merit and partly to his life having been written by so popular an author as Dr. Johnson. He is, indeed, a writer and thinker of rare excellence, and the value of what he has left behind him, has been proved by the admiration of those who have lived among opinions and manners widely different from those of his own time. When you first open his book, you perceive at once that you are communing with a mind that has arrived at peculiar results by peculiar processes. The stamp of originality is upon every sentence. Nothing is taken at second-hand, and nothing suggests obvious and familiar asso-

ciations. The range of his mind is boundless, and he seems acquainted with every province of thought. There is a nobility and grandeur in his ideas and sentiments which show them to come from a mind accustomed to take the most comprehensive views of things, to compare their eternal relations, and to construct the potential out of the materials of the actual.

The principal work in this volume is called "*The Religion of a Physician*"; but how little there is in it that is professional! There is nothing of the smell of the gallipot upon any page. It is the reflection of a fine and original mind, enriched with learning and observation, which has meditated profoundly upon its own substance, upon its relations to God, to the universe, and to other minds, and delivers its results in a manner which shows that the author is conscious of their value, without falling into the arrogant tone of those philosophers who can only look straight forward, and consequently imagine that there is but one road to the temple of Truth. He stands upon a high vantage-ground and commands an extensive horizon. He is remarkable for regarding the essential properties of things, and not their accidental forms. He is no Catholic, but he is willing to kneel at a mass; he believes that the Christian religion can sanctify an idle form. A toad or a bear is not ugly in his eyes, "they being created in those outward shapes which best express those actions of their inward forms."

It would be impossible to give any thing like an analysis of this production. It is without regular form or definite plan, and is a picture of the author's mind, and not originally drawn for the public eye. In his thoughts he does not seem to be governed by the common laws of association, but he writes down upon the spot every fancy that comes into his head. One great charm of his productions arises from the novelty which this peculiarity gives him. In our time a man generally composes for some particular reason, to effect some proposed end, which is kept in view at every period, so that the current of his thoughts is never allowed to wander at its "own sweet will," but is made to flow with a given velocity and in a required direction. But Sir Thomas Browne seems to write because his mind is full to overflowing and craves the relief of composition.

We make one extract from the "Religio Medici," as being a fair specimen of his peculiar manner.

"My common conversation I do acknowledge austere, my behaviour full of rigor, sometimes not without morosity. Yet at my devotion I love to use the civility of my knee, my hat, and hand, with all those outward and sensible motions which may express or promote my invisible devotion. I should violate my own arm rather than a church, nor willingly deface the name of saint or martyr. At the sight of a cross or crucifix I can dispense with my hat, but scarce with the thought or memory of my Saviour. I cannot laugh at, but rather pity the fruitless journeys of pilgrims, or condemn the miserable condition of friars; for, though misplaced in circumstances, there is something in it of devotion. I could never hear the Ave-Mary bell without an elevation, or think it a sufficient warrant, because they erred in one circumstance, for me to err in all, that is, in silence and dumb contempt; whilst therefore they directed their devotions to her, I offered mine to God, and rectified the errors of their prayers, by rightly ordering mine own. At a solemn procession I have wept abundantly, while my consorts, blind with opposition and prejudice, have fallen into an excess of scorn and laughter. There are questionless both in Greek, Roman, and African churches, solemnities and ceremonies, whereof the wiser zeals do make a Christian use, and stand condemned by us, not as evil in themselves, but as allurements and baits of superstition to those vulgar heads that look askint on the face of truth, and those unstable judgments that cannot resist in the narrow point and centre of virtue without a reel or stagger to the circumference." pp. 10, 11.

The treatise on "Urn-Burial" is full of rare and curious learning, which shows that its author had studied as well as thought. Amidst all its details of facts and quaint speculation there is an under-current of solemn thought which produces an effect upon the soul, like that with which we might listen to the echoed strains of an organ when evening was deepening the obscurity of the lengthened aisles of some reverend cathedral.

The remainder of the volume is occupied with "A Letter to a Friend" in a time of affliction, and with some extracts from his largest work, the "Enquiry into Vulgar Errors," of which we hope to see more in some future volume. They are all strongly marked with the impress of their author's strikingly original mind.

- ART. XI. — 1. *A Manual containing Information respecting the Growth of the Mulberry Tree, with Suitable Directions for the Culture of Silk.* In Three Parts. By J. H. COBB, A. M. Boston. Carter, Hendee, & Babcock. 1831. 12mo. pp. 68.
2. *Essays on American Silk, and the Best Means of rendering it a Source of Individual and National Wealth; with Directions to Farmers for Raising Silk Worms.* By JOHN D'HOMERGUE, Silk Manufacturer, and PETER STEPHEN DUPONCEAU, Member of the American Philosophical Society. Philadelphia. John Grigg. 1830. 12mo. pp. 120.
3. *A Methodical Treatise on the Cultivation of the Mulberry Tree, on the Raising of Silk Worms, and on Winding the Silk from the Cocoons.* Abridged from the French of M. DE LA BROUSSE; with Notes and an Appendix. By WILLIAM H. VERNON, of Rhode-Island. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co. 1828. 8vo. pp. 174.

THE subject of the Culture of Silk is one which is attracting every day an increasing public attention. Apart from the promise held out of its importance to our country, it is a very interesting subject in itself. That a species of worms, so remarkable among the "puny vouchers of Omnipotence," should be constituted in such a way that all the humors of their body tend to produce a valuable material for human convenience and luxury, and that in the course of a few days they should spin and wind round their bodies an unbroken thread of twelve hundred yards in length, is a subject of admiration as well for the moralist as the lover of nature. When we superadd to these considerations what human skill and contrivance have wrought out, and are told how by the successive processes of art and machinery the most beautiful fabrics have been perfected from the spontaneous productions of the insect, fabrics which find their way all over the civilized world, — an interest of a different kind is felt in the subject, such as springs from the effect of human power and ingenuity in following out the indications of nature, and using the gifts of Providence.

Mr. Vernon's publication has the merit of being first in the order of time among the works before us. It is translated and

abridged from the treatise of M. De la Brousse, who it seems was more of a practical man than accomplished writer, and whose treatise required a good deal of pruning and attention to arrangement in some particulars. The first part of the work, on the mulberry tree, contains information sufficiently minute concerning the different species, the rearing, preservation, and healthy condition of the tree. Mr. Vernon's translation of this part of the work is often literally followed by Mr. Cobb, in the corresponding part of his book ; and he acknowledges himself indebted to Mr. Vernon among others, for considerable extracts, where they are consonant with his experience.

The second and larger part of Mr. Vernon's book carries us through the process of rearing the silk-worm from the egg till its growth is completed and its thread is fully spun ; in which state it is called a *cocoon*. It is then prepared for being stripped of its covering, by stifling the chrysalis either in a heated oven, or by vapor from hot water, or by exposure to a meridian sun, or by noxious fumes, each of which processes is faithfully described. Next comes an account of the delicate art of reeling or winding the silk from the cocoons, and a description of the machinery for that purpose. The accommodation for the labors of these diligent insects, and the food of which they are greedy devourers, are not overlooked, nor the diseases to which they are subject and the remedies. A good deal of this history is merely curious, containing minute particulars which are attended to in France and other places in respect to the raising and the watchful care of silk-worms, but which are disregarded in this country ; particularly what relates to the temperature, which, according to the usage there, is to be nicely adjusted to the different stages in their growth.

Mr. Vernon's book is interspersed with notes and followed by an Appendix, both containing such useful remarks as we might expect from a gentleman of his wide reading and literary leisure ; accompanied too by the zest acquired by the author's foreign travels ; he being withal an experienced horticulturist.

The Essays of M. D'Homergue and Mr. Duponceau, besides their intrinsic worth, excite a peculiar interest from the circumstances of authorship. M. D'Homergue, a young French gentleman, came to Philadelphia from France in

May, 1829, in compliance with the wishes of an association intended to promote the raising of silk-worms and the culture of silk. He is the son of an eminent silk-manufacturer at Nîmes; and though he afterwards changed his pursuit, he was originally trained to his father's business, and became thoroughly versed in its various processes. Mr. Duponceau became acquainted with him soon after his arrival, and perceived that he was familiar with the history and practical details of the culture of silk. Becoming interested in a subject of which he had before only a superficial knowledge, Mr. Duponceau was unwilling to let the opportunity escape of giving the American public the benefit of what could be procured from an intelligent and well-instructed foreigner upon matters which had already occupied the attention of our general government. To this end he obtained from M. D'Homergue, who was ignorant of the English language, all the information that he deemed most important, which he condensed and published in the "*National Gazette*," in the form of *Essays*, and in M. D'Homergue's name, together with some accessory matters; claiming little more for himself than the merit of communicating the knowledge of another. (Duponceau's *Preface to the Essays*, pp. xiii, xiv, xviii.)

The circumstances which give peculiar value to these "*Essays*" are, that the author came hither possessed of a full knowledge of the silk business in his own country, and that he informed himself of the state of the business in this country under the guidance and tutelage of a distinguished citizen and scholar, who, so far from allowing him to be misled or imposed upon by others, assisted him in procuring and collating facts, and turning them to the best account, so as to warn our people against rashness and over-doing, with which they are sometimes charged as besetting sins.

The "*Essays*" are preceded by a well-adapted *Preface*, written by Mr. Duponceau, to which we have already alluded. They begin with an account of the quality of the American silk that fell under M. D'Homergue's notice, and of his experiments in regard to its relative quantity, compared with that produced by the silk-worms of Europe. He was struck with its remarkable fineness, and with the peculiar beauty of the silk of the white cocoons, which he found to be numerous in this country, and which are most to be prized. In the

quantity of the silk also, his experiments proved a great superiority in favor of this country ; that is, taking the worms produced in Pennsylvania as an average specimen in this particular. The results of his experiments were remarkable in the following particulars. The American cocoons proved to be nearly twice the weight of the European, and much more uniform in their weight ; and of the same weight of American and of European cocoons, the American produced twice the weight of silk. Greatest of all was M. D'Homergue's surprise to find that the silk-worms, which in Europe require so much tender care to guard them against changes of temperature, (the directions concerning which form no small part of the foreign treatises upon the culture of silk,) should in our most mutable and fickle climate be protected against the great and sudden variations of the weather, so as to excel to such a degree those of Europe.

"I am as yet at a loss to conceive how the American farmers do to prevent the worms from feeling the effects of those changes. This requires more care, attention, and sagacity than might be believed by those who are not acquainted with the constitution of that delicate insect. I doubt much whether it will be credited at first in Europe, when the fact shall be made known there. All I can say is, that it has excited the astonishment of gentlemen from France, well acquainted with the silk business, who would not have believed it if they had not been present at my experiment." pp. 6, 7.

M. D'Homergue recurs to the subject of climate again in another part of his book ; and endeavours to account for what had before seemed to him mysterious, by stating certain facts which appear to have been overlooked by other writers.

"In China," he remarks, "the native country of the silk-worm, that useful insect is born, grows, and thrives in the open air. Like the common caterpillar it nestles upon trees, and there winds its beautiful cocoons.—In Europe, on the contrary, in Italy and the south of France, notwithstanding the boasted mildness of those climates, the egg is hatched and the worm is raised in *hot-houses* with infinite trouble and care. In the works of Dandolo and Bonafous, the most approved European writers on this subject, the one an Italian, the other a Frenchman, we find the most minute directions for regulating from day to day the heat of stoves ; and the farmer who raises

silk-worms must have the thermometer constantly in his hand, the degrees of heat being fixed for every day of the growth of the animal, and almost for every hour. The numerous works on the art of raising silk-worms are in a great measure filled with these details." p. 65.

In this country the directions here spoken of are altogether neglected. M. D'Homergue found this to be the fact, though the copious Manual published under the authority of Congress embraces the minute details of foreign writers, and enjoins the use of the thermometer as absolutely essential; in default of which millions of the worms must die, and many that survive must become feeble and unproductive, and the race must degenerate. Still, however, he found that silk-worms were raised in various parts of the United States, and kept in a healthy condition, and clothed with their rich covering, remarkable for the quality and quantity, without the use of stoves or thermometers, notwithstanding the alleged vicissitudes of our climate. This fact led him to examine the thermometrical observations published in the city of Philadelphia, from which he ascertained that in the year in which he wrote the *Essays* (1829) the thermometer, in the open air, from the 22d of May to the 22d of June, had not fallen below 69⁴° of Fahrenheit, although, he adds, "during that period the weather was sometimes unusually cool." * This is the usual season for raising the silk-worms; and the author's experience, as well as the authority of others had taught him, that a temperature not falling below the 62d degree of Fahrenheit could not be injurious to those insects; so that if the meteorological observations relied upon were any thing near the truth and the average temperature of different years, M. D'Homergue's case is fully made out; namely, that, "during the proper time of raising silk-worms, the temperature is hardly ever such as to endanger their health; and, unless it be so," he "can perceive no way to account for the success of the American farmers in raising their silk-worms, and producing such beautiful silk, without any of those precautions respecting the degrees of heat which are

* We think there must be some inaccuracy in this statement. It would be a fact somewhat remarkable during a succession of thirty days, even in the usual period of the greatest heat of summer, that the thermometer should at no time indicate a degree of temperature lower than 69⁴°.

taken by the silk-culturists of Europe." Another fact that goes to establish the favorableness of the climate of the Middle States to the silk-worm is, that while in Europe the period from the hatching of the egg to the completion of the cocoon is forty-five and sometimes forty-seven days, it is, in this country, but thirty-one days.* (pp. 66-70.)

Thus does M. D'Homergue set forth the advantages enjoyed in this country for the raising of silk-worms. The next question is, what to do with the silk after they have completed their part of the labor. M. D'Homergue thinks we should proceed to learn the art of winding the silk from the cocoons, which is as yet unknown among us, and there stop for the present. Till we have attained this art, our extensive mulberry orchards and myriads of silk-worms are little better than playthings, perhaps even expensive ones. Having learned this art, nothing will be wasted. It belongs to those who possess it to distinguish the different kinds or qualities of silk, which are various, so as to keep them distinct, and see that every thing is saved for the remaining processes and manufacture of different articles. Hitherto in Connecticut and other parts of this country, as much has been accomplished in this way as could be expected from untutored ingenuity. But it is a delicate and difficult process, requiring good machinery and much instruction and practice. We forbear to enter upon the technical minutiae pertaining to it, which might prove uninteresting to many of our readers; but we are satisfied from M. D'Homergue's statements, that, whenever we shall advance thus far and produce raw silk of a merchantable quality, there will be no want of a profitable market in silk-manufacturing countries; and that it will be safer for us to stop here, till we become perfect in this first step, than to attempt to grasp the whole business of the manufacture of silk at once.

* This may be true in Philadelphia and farther south; or it may be that the conclusion is drawn from too small a number of examples. Mr. Cobb in his *Manual* says, "thirty-two days intervene between the hatching and the *beginning* of the cocoon, and I have known the period retarded to sixty days." (Page 30.) Something is to be allowed for difference of temperature between the vicinity of Philadelphia and that of Boston; but the result on the whole seems to be, that like man in this new world, these busy insects, too, are quicker and more efficient in their operations than in European countries.

Mr. Cobb's "Manual," "published by direction of his Excellency Governor Lincoln, agreeably to a resolve of the Commonwealth," is a very valuable production, methodical in its arrangement, simple and perspicuous in style, containing in a small compass the most important information upon the subjects treated, and free from exaggeration and parade of learning. He acknowledges himself indebted in some measure to the Manual published under the authority of Congress; to the two first numbers of "The Silk-Culturist," by Dr. Felix Pascalis, of New York; to the work of Mr. Vernon, and that of M. D'Homergue and Mr. Duponceau; and to a pamphlet by Gideon B. Smith, Esq., of Baltimore. But besides the use made of these authors by their permission, and with good judgment, his work gives, in every thing essential, the results of his own experience; and whatever he has borrowed from others is adapted to our climate and to the circumstances of the culture of silk among us; being thus made, not only intelligible, but practically useful.

The First Part of Mr. Cobb's "Manual" treats of the Mulberry Tree, for the leaves of which, as food for the silk-worm, there appears to be no good substitute. He carries us through the whole process of preparing and sowing the seed, and rearing and fostering the tree. Besides the different species of the mulberry tree which have been often described, including the white mulberry tree, (commonly cultivated for the sake of silk-worms,) he gives an account of the Chinese mulberry. It was introduced into France (we are not told in what year) by M. S. Perrottet, a member of the Linnæan Society of Paris, who was employed by the French government as a travelling botanist. He brought with him from the Asiatic regions a very rare and extensive collection of plants, among which was one which he called *Morus Multicaulis*, for the first time ascertained to be the *Morus alba Sinensis*; the real Chinese mulberry. This information is taken from the second number of the "Silk-Culturist," published by Dr. Pascalis of New York, and was communicated to the Doctor in a letter from Havre. The tree has been introduced into this country, and promises to supersede all others of the same class. (Cobb's Manual, pp. 21, 22, 23.)

Mr. Cobb, in the Second Part of his "Manual," gives in sixteen pages, and in a clear and brief manner, the necessary directions in regard to the "Rearing of Silk-Worms," a

subject which we have anticipated, so far as the extent which we have prescribed to ourselves for its consideration admits, in speaking of the work of M. D'Homergue and Mr. Duponceau.

In the Third Part, Mr. Cobb treats of "Reeling and Manufacturing Silk." In regard to the reeling of the silk, a desideratum so much insisted upon by M. D'Homergue, the prospect is brightening. Mr. Cobb gives an account of his recent visit to the nursery and filature of Mr. Duponceau. The filature was established under the direction of M. D'Homergue.

"Ten reels are employed, each of which is worked by two women under the superintendence of Mr. D'Homergue. The reels of this filature are made chiefly on the model of the Piedmontese reel, somewhat simplified by Mr. D'Homergue. He put one of these reels in operation in my presence, and it appeared to work very easily. The silk reeled at that time I have preserved as a specimen, and have since been informed by an intelligent merchant of New York, that it would bring seven dollars a pound in France. I was also shown several parcels of sewing-silk, manufactured by Mr. D'Homergue from the refuse cocoons." p. 45, *note*.

Mr. Cobb describes his own practice in preparing the cocoons, and reeling from them the silk. He acknowledges that "the reeling of silk requires skill, practice, and experience. But let not those who undertake it be readily discouraged; perseverance and attention for a short season will enable them to become expert at the business, although their first efforts may seem discouraging." Mr. Cobb's reel is similar to the Piedmontese, with improvements of his own, more neatly finished, as he tells us, than any that he has seen in this country; and he can furnish it to others for twenty-five dollars. He has never yet been able in his family to reel a pound in a day. The silk, when reeled upon Mr. Cobb's machine, sells for four dollars and a half a pound, and some at a higher price. It commands in this condition as high a price as the Connecticut sewing-silk, which loses half its weight in the preparation, besides the labor super-added to the reeled or raw silk. Mr. Cobb, without any precise details, informs us that he has been able, with the assistance of one man, to turn his raw silk to a profitable account in the manufacture of fringes, cords, furniture-bind-

ings, &c. But on the subject of silk manufactures there is little or nothing for remark at present in this country, and we do not presume to prophesy concerning it; but, as in many other things the mechanical genius and enterprise of our country have outrun all foresight and prognostication, so in this, no advances which may be made will greatly call forth our wonder or surprise. And it may be that Mr. Cobb is not too sanguine in his predictions contained in the following paragraph.

"We in America are not obliged to pursue the same course that is followed in Europe. The ingenuity and intelligence of our community will soon arrange a reeling apparatus by the family fire-side; and that part of the year which cannot be employed in rearing the worms, will be advantageously improved in reeling the cocoons to any given pattern or degree of fineness; nor is there any more difficulty in it than in the manufacture of straw, and many other employments which have engaged the attention of our females. The time is probably not far distant, when America will excel Europe in her silk manufactures, as much as she now does in her cotton." pp. 48, 49.

But we have not time to speculate upon what is prospective; and for the sake of brevity we have avoided going into the historical accounts pertaining to our subject, and the statistical views which can be gathered from the works before us, and from the Manual prepared by the act of Congress.

ART. XII. — 1. *A Grammar of the Greek Language.* By BENJAMIN FRANKLIN FISK. Second Edition. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1831. 12mo. pp. 263.

2. *Greek Exercises, containing the Substance of the Greek Syntax, illustrated by Passages from the Best Greek Authors, to be written out from the Words given in their Simplest Form.* By BENJAMIN FRANKLIN FISK. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1831. 12mo. pp. 171.

THE fact that Mr. Fisk's Greek Grammar has gone into a second edition shows that his learned labors begin to be well understood among us. It is a work which amply sustains the reputation of the author, who was known before its pub-

lication, among his personal acquaintances, to have devoted himself with no common ardor, and in the loftiest spirit of scholarship, to the cultivation of classical learning. This Grammar does great honor to Mr. Fisk, and reflects much credit upon the literature of the country. We hope he will reap an abundant reward for his assiduous toils, not only in the shape of praise, but in the more substantial result of an extensive sale. Having expressed in general terms our approbation of the work, we proceed to a more detailed statement of its claims to public attention.

In a Preface, which shows that Mr. Fisk understands the art of writing English, as well as the science of Greek Grammar, he says, that "with a labor to be appreciated by those only who are conversant with such studies (to say nothing of extraneous impediments of no ordinary character) he collected and perused every work which seemed likely to afford any thing of service to his undertaking." The materials thus collected have been well digested, and the results of the author's personal investigations have been stated clearly and forcibly. For very good reasons, the modern arrangement of Nouns, in three declensions, has been adopted in preference to the ten declensions of the elder grammarians. The simplicity of this plan is undoubtedly a strong argument in its favor. In its general principles it embraces nouns of all descriptions; and in its detail, the rules of contraction enable the learner to arrange in a simple scheme all that class of nouns, which formed *five* out of the *ten* declensions in the old system. But to obviate objections and to meet the wishes of those who prefer the old method, a table of the "*Ten Declensions*" is annexed. The list of words belonging to the third declension, with the formation of their genitives, is copious, and useful to the beginner. It is desirable that the forms of a language which are to be first learned, should be as simple as the nature of the language will permit. Though nothing essential to an accurate and comprehensive view should be sacrificed to the plausible claims of simplicity, yet, if both can be united, a judicious teacher will never hesitate to sacrifice an old and complicated, to a new and simple system. Such are evidently the old and new systems of the Declensions.

The Chapters on Adjectives and Pronouns do not differ from the corresponding parts of other elementary grammars, except in their superior clearness of expression and ar-

rangement. They display throughout those marks of scholar-like labor, which must ever give the chief value to works of this description.

The nature and power of the Greek verb in all its modes and voices are surrounded with many nice and difficult points. No grammar, perhaps, can do more than furnish a few dubious and uncertain lights, to the path of the scholar, through the mazes of this most intricate subject. Certain it is, that no modern language can express one half of the slightly differing, almost commingling shades of meaning, that are conveyed to the mind by the versatile formation of the Greek verb. The linguist, who has cultivated an accurate knowledge of Greek, by long and intense study of the original authors, assisted by the helps furnished by the learned works of modern scholars, feels the simplicity and incomparable clearness with which an idea, a description, or an action is presented by the verb, with articles, prepositions, and other particles, varied through the almost endless forms of participles, tenses, voices, and modes, which present the idea, not nakedly, but in all its bearings, and yet with perfect distinctness, in reference to all the circumstances by which it may be encompassed; and at the same time, he feels his utter inability of presenting it *as a whole*, in any modern tongue, without enveloping it in profound obscurity. Grammarians have, however, endeavoured to explain these varieties, as well as they could. Their statements have been founded on examples, which, in most cases, have been contradicted by other examples, equally, if not more numerous. This is not owing to the fault of the writers, but to the extent and difficulty of the subject. Mr. Fisk has followed the popular notion, in his arrangement of the verb; and upon some points we would, without calling in question his learning and abilities, express our dissent from his opinions. The first of these points is the *Middle Voice*. The common opinion of the import of this form, we believe to be, in most cases, destitute of foundation. Mr. Fisk's definition is: "The Middle Voice expresses an action that is reflected upon the agent, as *τύπτομαι, I strike myself*;" and this agrees with the definition commonly given. But the usage of the language proves that this reflective sense is merely imaginary. In the few words which are adduced as examples, it requires often some little ingenuity and circumlocution to give them a reflective sense,

while the true meaning of the words may be expressed in a much more simple and direct form. The tenses which pass under the name of the Middle Voice, almost always bear an active or neuter signification, sometimes varying from that of the active form, and sometimes not. The first and second Aorist Middle, are the most frequently used, but, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, have nothing like a reciprocal sense. In the divisions under the general definition, Mr. Fisk says, "1. The middle voice signifies what we do to ourselves, and is equivalent to the action joined to the corresponding reflective pronoun; as *λούω*, I wash another, but *λούομαι* the same as *λούω ἑμαυτόν*, I wash myself," &c. Now the fact is, that the *reciprocal* translation in this and many other instances, though it apparently expresses the idea, does not express it exactly; *λούω* means I wash any thing, and *λούομαι*, middle, I bathe, or I take a bath, not necessarily I wash myself. For example, in Book viii. of the Odyssey, verse 449, we have

Ἀντόδιον δ' ἄρα μιν ταμὴν λούσασθαι ἄνωγεν,

"Immediately then the housekeeper ordered him to bathe,"

which might have been very well rendered to wash himself, had not the poet, a few lines further on, entered into some details of the process of bathing, such as

Τὸν δ' ἐπεὶ οὖν δμῳαὶ λούσαν, καὶ χρίσαν ἐλαίῳ.

"And when the servants had washed him, and anointed him with oil."

From which it appears that although Ulysses was directed to bathe (*λούσασθαι*), yet he did not wash himself, but servants performed the operation for him (*δμῳαὶ λούσαν*). We are inclined to think that in all cases it would be more accurate to translate the word in the same manner. Again, "*ἤλειψαν αὐτόν*, they anointed him; but *ἤλειψαντο* the same as *ἤλειψαν ἑαυτοὺς*, they anointed themselves." This is a case in point, and a strong one, yet even in regard to this word, usage is not uniform, as in *Iliad* xiv. 175.

Τῷ δ' ἦγε χροά καλὸν ἁλειψαμένη, ἰδὲ χρίτας

Πεξαμένη.

"With this she having anointed her beautiful person," &c.

Again: "*ἀπείχειν*, ἀπόσχειν, to restrain, *ἀπείχεσθαι*, ἐποσχέσθαι, to restrain one's self, to refrain." This distinction is not recognised by the usage of the best writers. For example, in *Xenophon's Memorabilia*, Lib. i. Cap. ii. § 37, we have

Ἀλλὰ τῶνδ' ἐτοί σε ἀπέχεσθαι, ἔφη, δεήσει·

"But it will behove you to refrain from these ;"

the verb being in the middle form. And in Cap. ii. § 62,

Ἵν' ἐκεῖνος πάντων ἀνθρώπων πλεῖστον ἀπέχεν·

"From which he most of all men refrained ;"

the verb being in the active form, but with precisely the same meaning. Examples might be multiplied, but it is unnecessary. We will mention only one or two more. Rem. 2. "Θώρακα ἐνδύειν, to put a breastplate on another ; Θώρακα ἐνδύεσθαι, to put a breastplate on one's self." But this distinction does not hold, for we find in Iliad, v. 736,

Ἡ δὲ χιτῶν' ἐνδύσα Διός, &c.

"And she, having put on (i. e. put on herself) the tunic of Jove," &c.

the verb being active. And in Iliad, xix. 371,

Δεύτερον αὖ θώρακα περὶ στήθεσιν ἔδυνεν.

"In the next place, he put on his breastplate around his breast."

In the latter example, the verb is ἐνδύνω, and not ἐνδύω, but both are from the same theme and have the same meaning. Again, "φυλάττειν, to watch any one, to observe ; φυλάττεσθαι, to observe any thing to one's advantage in order to avoid it." This distinction is general but not uniform, for we have in Euripides, Medea, 320, 321,

Τυνὴ γὰρ ὀξύθυμος, ὥς δ' αὖτως ἀνὴρ,

ῥῶον φυλάσσειν, ἢ σιωπηλὸς σοφός.

"For a sharp-tempered woman, as well as man,
Is easier to guard against than a silent, cunning one."

Here the active verb φυλάσσειν bears the meaning usually given to the middle form. Again, "ἡ Πάνθηα θώρακα ἐποίησάτο, Panthea caused a breastplate to be made." But we have in Iliad, v. 735,

— Ὅν' αὐτὴ ποίησαιο καὶ κάμει χειρσίν.

"Which she made and wrought with her own hands."

Thus it seems, that the middle signification belongs to but few words, that it often requires a forced interpretation in those few, and that many examples occur which have plainly a different meaning.

We differ from Mr. Fisk also, in regard to the propriety of restoring the *second perfect* and the *second pluperfect*, to their former station in the Middle Voice. The only argument in favor of it is, that this arrangement preserves "the symmetry which has hitherto existed in the three voices." In the first place, this symmetry is a mere fancy of grammarians; there is not a single verb in the Greek language which has all the tenses and voices attributed to the Greek verb. In the next place, it has been demonstrated by Buttmann and other late German grammarians, that these tenses never have a middle signification; and the principle of their formation is strictly analogous to the active. Even if the few middle tenses are permitted to constitute a separate voice, there is no sufficient reason for adding to them other tenses, which by universal acknowledgment have no claim to be so considered, except that of "symmetry."

The other parts of speech are treated with good judgment, in the remaining portion of the Etymology. In all our school grammars, the subject of Syntax has been set forth in a very unsatisfactory and imperfect shape. The Rules have been too technical, and of course unintelligible to beginners. There is doubtless an insuperable difficulty in drawing up a system of Greek Syntax, which shall at once be sufficiently comprehensive to embrace an adequate view of the varied and flexible constructions of the language, and sufficiently simple to answer the purpose of an elementary school-book. It is a department that requires an ample discussion and many volumes to exhaust it. The most that can be done is to select the more obvious principles, and embody them in intelligible rules, illustrated by pertinent examples, leaving the student to perfect his knowledge by studying the authors and consulting the voluminous and philosophical writings, particularly of German philologists, at his leisure. This object Mr. Fisk has successfully accomplished. His arrangement is excellent; his rules are neatly and intelligibly expressed, and his examples are happily selected from an extensive range of personal studies. The Prosody is drawn up with great care, and is believed, as the author remarks in the Preface, to be "as full and satisfactory as the limits allowable to its relative importance will admit of its being made." Copious tables of the Dialects have been taken from the "Gloucester Greek Grammar." We are glad to

find that the *quantity* of the penultimate in doubtful cases, is uniformly marked. If this is properly attended to by teachers and scholars, it will do away that barbarous disregard of correct pronunciation, which is next to universal among us.

On the whole, considering the difficulty and extent of the subject, we must say that Mr. Fisk has been uncommonly successful. The few points, with regard to which we think him in the wrong, are of no great practical importance, and detract but little from the value of his work. It cannot be expected, nor is it possible, that a language which grew up so freely and luxuriantly as the Greek, which existed classical and pure twenty centuries, which is as varied as the face of nature, and as profound as the mind and heart of man, which advanced with the advance of intellect, from the description of the external, to the description of the internal world, and is more than adequate to both, — it is impossible, we say, that such a language should be reduced to its elements, and thoroughly analysed, in a single treatise. The dialect of Homer, which has been absurdly represented by many grammarians, and is still absurdly represented by many teachers, as a jargon made up of half a dozen provincial forms, is found by learned scholars quite enough of itself, for copious volumes of elaborate grammatical discussion. The work before us, is, however, worthy of being extensively adopted. We cordially recommend it to those who wish to begin their Greek studies, with a simple and intelligible statement of the principles which form the ground-work of that ancient and most interesting language.

The "Exercises," compiled by the same author, ought to be used in connexion with the Grammar. They are selected from the best Greek authors, and arranged in reference to the Grammar. We rejoice to welcome a book so happily adapted to the wants of our classical schools. The writing of Greek is indispensable to the attainment of even a tolerable knowledge of the language. Numerous idiomatic expressions, the nice shades of difference between the tenses, and even the orthography, require the exercise of writing to fix them in the memory. *Nulla dies sine lineâ* should be the motto of the ingenuous youth who aspires to a manly command over the polished languages of antiquity. This unpretending little volume is well worthy the attention of teachers. By using it, the progress of the scholar will be rendered at

the same time easy and agreeable, and his knowledge definite and sure. Mr. Fisk deserves the thanks of the friends of good education for his important and valuable labors.

ART. XIII. — *History of the Northmen, or the Danes and Normans, from the Earliest Times to the Conquest of England by William of Normandy.* By HENRY WHEATON, Honorary Member of the Scandinavian and Icelandic Literary Societies at Copenhagen. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 1831. 8vo. pp. 367.

THE design of this work is thus expressed in the Preface :

"In the following attempt to illustrate the early annals of the North, it has been the writer's aim to seize the principal points in the progress of society and manners in this remote period, which have been either entirely passed over or barely glanced at by the national historians of France and England, but which throw a strong and clear light upon the affairs of Europe during the middle ages, and illustrate the formation of the great monarchies now constituting some of its leading states."

When we look back upon the various incursions of nations from the East and the North to the more civilized regions of the southwest of Europe, from the first invasion of the Cimbri and Teutones, about a century before Christ, to the successive irruptions of German and Slavonian tribes during the middle ages, successively destroying and establishing mighty empires, and thus by degrees changing and renovating the world,—the wonderful exploits of the Scandinavians form as it were the last act in this great drama of universal history. The Goths, the Vandals, the Huns, and all the diverse tribes which under various names invaded, subdued, and desolated France, Spain, and Italy, pressed on by land to wrest the riches of the ancient world from their effeminate possessors. The Scandinavians, the Northmen, were the children of the sea, those of whom the Ynlinga-Saga says, "They are rightly named Sea-Kings, who never seek shelter under a roof, and never drain their drinking-horn at a cottage fire." They came from the coasts of Norway and Denmark to infest and subdue those kingdoms which the conquerors of the Roman Empire had erected on its ruins.

Even before they discovered Iceland, Greenland, and perhaps North America, they pressed forward to the South of Europe, led on by the love of adventure, strife, and conquest, without chart or compass, in their frail canoes, at whose sight Charlemagne, when, from the windows of his palace at Narbonne, he saw them hovering on the bosom of the Mediterranean, shed prophetic tears over the impending fate of his kingdom. Thus, when we view the invasion of the Northmen which ended in the overthrow of the old, and the foundation of the new English monarchy, in connexion with the preceding migrations of tribes and nations, which like the rush of "many waters" overwhelmed the South and the West of Europe, and changed the face of the ancient world, the maritime invasion of the Northmen appears as the last proud wave dashing against the continent and bearing down the last dams of ancient civilization.

Our author after having told us what little the ancient Greeks and Romans knew of the Scandinavians, shows how these bold sea-rovers, not confined to the Baltic, roamed over the great Northern and Western Oceans, and at a very early period discovered the Orcades and Faroer Isles. He describes the discovery of Iceland by the Norwegian Naddod, in 861, and its settlement by those Norwegians who from time to time fled thither from persecution and oppression at home. "The rumor soon spread over the North of this new and goodly land where man might live free from the tyranny of kings and lords." About a century after the discovery of Iceland, Erik the Red, the son of the Norwegian Thorwald who had been exiled from his native country for having slain his enemy, was compelled to leave Iceland for the same reason which had banished his father from Norway. Erik discovered Greenland in 982, and led thither a small colony, which was afterwards converted to Christianity. "The church and colony of Greenland continued to flourish, until a remarkable disease, called the Black Plague" (or the Black Death), "which spread all over the countries of the North (1348), ravaged the settlements, and their ruin was finally consummated by a feud with the wild natives (1481)."

In the year 1001, Bjarne, one of the descendants of Ingolf, the first settler of Iceland, having set sail from Norway to join his father Herjolf in Greenland, and being carried by the wind first to the west, then southwardly, descried a flat country

covered with woods, the appearance of which was so different from that of Greenland as it had been described to him, that he would not go on shore, but made sail to the north-west. In this course, he saw an island at a distance, but continued his voyage and arrived safely in Greenland.

The recital of what he had seen excited Leif, the son of Erik the Red, to emulate the fame his father had acquired by the discovery of Greenland. Leif purchased Bjarne's ship, and set sail with thirty-five companions, among whom was a native of the South-countries, named Tyrker (Dieterich Dirk) probably a German.

"They first discovered what they supposed to be one of the countries seen by Bjarne, the coast of which was a flat, stony land, and the back ground crowned with lofty mountains, covered with ice and snow. This they named Helluland, or the flat country. Pursuing their voyage farther south, they soon came to another coast, also flat, covered with thick wood, and the shores of white sand, gradually sloping towards the sea. Here they cast anchor and went on shore. They named the country Mark-land, or the country of the wood, and pursued their voyage with a north-east wind for two days and nights, when they discovered a third land, the northern coast of which was sheltered by an island. Here they again landed, and found a country, not mountainous, but undulating and woody, and abounding with fruits and berries, delicious to the taste. From thence they reëmbarked, and made sail to the west to seek a harbour, which they at last found at the mouth of a river, where they were swept by the tide into the lake from which the river issued. They cast anchor, and pitched their tents at this spot, and found the river and lake full of the largest salmon they had ever seen. Finding the climate very temperate, and the soil fruitful in pasturage, they determined to build huts and pass the winter here. The days were nearer of an equal length than in Greenland or Iceland, and when they were at the shortest, the sun rose at half-past seven, and set at half-past four o'clock.*

"It happened one day soon after their arrival, that Tyrker, the German, was missing, and as Leif set a great value upon the youth, on account of his skill in various arts, he sent his followers in search of him in every direction. When they at last found him, he began to speak to them in the Teutonic language, with many extravagant signs of joy. They at last

* "Supposing this computation to be correct, it must have been in the latitude of Boston, the present capital of New England."

made out to understand from him in the North tongue, that he had found in the vicinity vines bearing wild grapes. He led them to the spot, and they brought to their chief a quantity of the grapes which they had gathered. At first, Leif doubted whether they were really that fruit, but the German assured him he was well acquainted with it, being a native of the southern wine countries. Leif, thereupon, named the country Vinland." pp. 23, 24.

In the following spring Leif returned to Greenland. Vinland was afterward visited by his brother Thorwald, who passed the winter in the huts constructed by Leif, and subsisted by fishing. After having explored the country to the west, and then to the east and the north, during the two following summers, and given names to the various capes and bays which he discovered, he was killed by the natives, who approached in a multitude of batteaux to avenge the cruel death which Thorwald had inflicted on two of their countrymen who had been taken prisoners by the Northmen. The natives took to flight after discharging a shower of arrows at their enemies.

"The native inhabitants found by the Northmen in Vinland, resembled those on the western coast of Greenland. These Esquimaux were called by them *Skrœlingar*, or dwarfs, from their diminutive and squalid appearance, in the same manner as their Gothic ancestors had given a similar appellation to the Finns and Laplanders. They found these aborigines deficient in manly courage and bodily strength. p. 26.

The survivors of Thorwald passed the winter in Vinland, and in the spring returned to Greenland.

Vinland was afterward visited by Thorfin, a Norwegian chieftain of great wealth, "who took with him all kinds of domestic animals, tools, and provisions to form a permanent colony, and was accompanied by his wife Gudrida, and five other women. In the following spring, the *Skrœlingar* came in great multitudes to trade with the Northmen in peltries and other productions."

"After a residence of three years in Vinland, Thorfin returned to his native country with specimens of the fruits and peltries which he had collected. . . . A part of Thorfin's company still remained in Vinland, and they were afterwards joined by two Icelandic chieftains, named Helgi and Fiombogi, who were brothers, and fitted out an expedition from the Greenland colony." p. 28.

"No subsequent traces of the Norman colony in America are to be found until the year 1059, when it is said that an Irish or Saxon priest, named Jon or John, who had preached for some time as a missionary in Iceland, went to Vinland, for the purpose of converting the colonies to Christianity, where he was murdered by the heathens. A bishop of Greenland, named Erik, afterwards (1121), undertook the same voyage, for the same purpose, but with what success is uncertain. . . . The colony established by them probably perished in the same manner with the ancient establishments in Greenland. Some faint traces of its existence may, perhaps, be found in the relations of the Jesuit missionaries respecting a native tribe in the district of Gaspé, at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, who are said to have attained a certain degree of civilization, to have worshipped the sun, and observed the position of the stars. Others revered the symbol of the cross before the arrival of the French missionaries, which, according to their tradition, had been taught them by a venerable person, who cured, by this means, a terrible epidemic which raged among them." pp. 30, 31.

We have given here the essentials of the details of this discovery which Mr. Wheaton has collected from the Icelandic chronicles. They seem sufficient to invalidate the assertion of a late English review of Mr. Wheaton's book, that "the internal evidence of the story is enough to show that it is wholly unworthy of credit." There is nothing in the description of the country and its inhabitants, which does not in its general features agree with the northerly regions of this continent, and with the aboriginal Esquimaux. The distance between Greenland and the opposite American shore is inconsiderable, particularly from the most southern point of Greenland, or its western shore; and recent discoveries have proved that the Norwegians established a colony also on this western coast, — a fact which before rested only on the authority of those Icelandic chronicles which relate the discovery and settlement of Vinland. If we consider for a moment the distance from Greenland to Iceland, and particularly that between Iceland and Norway; if we consider, moreover, that the undoubted discoverers and settlers, both of Iceland and Greenland, had before that time explored and ravaged the coasts of France and Spain, — the distance between Greenland and the American continent certainly cannot be urged as a serious objection to the discovery of North America by the Greenlander Leif, in the year 1002. The

colony of Vinland may have perished in the same or a similar manner as that of Greenland; and the Northmen, who were the only navigators of that age, could have but slight inducements to continue their attempts at settling upon the American coast, while the riches of the ancient world lay open to their predatory expeditions.

That the merits of Columbus and of Cabot are not impaired by this fact of a previous transient settlement on the shores of this continent, needs no argument. The interesting question, what the precise course was which the Norwegians pursued, and in what part of North America they established their colony, is attended with great difficulties, and would at any rate require a more extensive investigation than our limits allow.

After this account of the principal expeditions of the Northmen in the great Northern and Western Oceans, Mr. Wheaton gives a succinct and most interesting account of the state of society, the manners, religion, language, and literature of Iceland. It is one of the most remarkable events in the history of civilization, that long before the revival of learning in the south of Europe, and unaided by the classical remains of Greece and Rome, an independent literature grew up and flourished in the patriarchal republic of Iceland. Poetry was cultivated by the Skalds (or bards), who preserved and expanded the religious ideas of the people, and celebrated the heroic deeds of their ancestors and contemporaries. Among the Skalds there were many heroes, or faithful companions of their chieftains in their warlike expeditions and deadly feuds. Many of these ancient poems, many legends of the gods and the heroes of the North, being for a long time transmitted by oral tradition, have been preserved, particularly in two great collections, the first of which, called the elder or the poetic Edda, was made by the Icelander Sæmund Sigfussen, born in the year 1056. The prose Edda was compiled by Snorre Sturleson, born at Hvamm, on the west coast of Iceland, in the year 1178.

In the department of history in which Ari Frode, a friend and fellow-student of Sæmund Sigfussen, had first distinguished himself by his annals, Snorre Sturleson gained for himself the title of the "Herodotus of the North," by his great historical work "*Heimskringla*," or the Annals of the Kings of Norway. The learning and literary preëminence of Snorre,

the wealthy and ambitious chieftain whom the choice of the people had raised to the chief magistracy in his country, is one of the brightest evidences that the most active life is not incompatible with literary pursuits and attainments; that, on the contrary, the mind by intense devotion to one kind of employment may gain strength for different occupations, and find recreation and rest where others see only tasks and burthens.

The ancient religion of Scandinavia, which we learn chiefly from the elder Edda, is so vast a subject that we can present here only a few of the leading ideas which Mr. Wheaton has given in his work. We find among the Northmen a strong and inspiring faith in the immortality of the soul. As they looked upon heroic courage as the height of virtue, and upon cowardice as the extreme of vice, the best joys of heaven or *Valhalla*, were reserved for the brave who die the death of heroes. We will give here the last stanza of the death-song of Ragnar Lodbrok, which the Skalds supposed him to have sung in the dungeon full of serpents into which he had been thrown by the treacherous King Ella, and where he expired with a "laugh of defiance."

"Cease my strain! I hear them call
Who bid me hence to Odin's hall!
High seated in their blest abodes
I soon shall quaff the drink of gods.
The hours of life have glided by —
I fall! but laughing will I die!
The hours of life have glided by —
I fall! but laughing will I die!" p. 154.

We find among the Northmen a general belief in higher powers which control the destinies of man. Some of the chieftains, however, carried their audacity so far as to defy the gods themselves.

"Thus we are told in the Sagas, of two famous heroes, who never sacrificed to the national deities, and yet spurned the yoke of Christianity. King Olaf the Saint demanded of one of them, who offered to enter his military service, of what religion he was? — 'My brother in arms and I,' said Gauthakon to the king, 'are neither Christians nor Pagans. We have no faith, but in our arms and our strength to vanquish our enemies, and those we have ever found sufficient.'" p. 138.

The popular religion supposed "the world to have been formed from the body of the giant Ymir, the rocks from his bones, the heavens from his skull, the clouds from his brains, and the sea from his blood." Wild as it is, we cannot but recognise in this gigantic cosmogony a perception of the organic harmony of the universe, or in the language of Greek philosophy, an intimate correspondence between the macrocosm, the world, and the microcosm man.

Although the Scandinavians believed in a multitude of gods, yet the thought of One God, the "All-Father," frequently enters into this multifarious polytheism. We find also a prophetic faith in the destruction of the present world; a temporary triumph of the wicked over the just, and a final and eternal victory of the good.

" 'The sun all black shall be,
The earth sink in the sea,
And every starry ray,
From heaven fade away;
While vapors hot shall fill
The air round Ygdrasil,
And flaming as they rise,
Play towering to the skies.' "

After which a new heaven and a new earth shall appear, whilst two individuals of the human race, saved from the general destruction, shall perpetuate their species in the world thus renovated." pp. 65, 66.

After having given a general account of the literature of Iceland and of the religion which prevailed in the north of Europe, Mr. Wheaton resumes the narrative of the maritime expeditions of the Northmen to the south of Europe. They are characterized by that love of wild and perilous adventure and martial fury which in some was known to break out into actual madness, a *furor Martis*. These furious warriors were designated by the name of Bersærker. Piracy being then considered an honorable employment, we are told that even women of illustrious descent became pirates and roved the seas. Thus in the great battle of Bravalla, "two of the celebrated Skjoldmeyar, or Virgins of the Shield, of that time, Hetha and Visina, brought a reinforcement to the king of Zealand, the one of a hundred Amazonians like herself, the other a troop of savage Svends, armed with long swords and small bucklers of an azure hue."

The first incursions of the Northmen to Scotland, the Orcades, Hebrides, Ireland, and England, were soon followed by predatory expeditions to the coast of France, Spain, and Italy. Their repeated invasions of France began soon after the death of Charlemagne. His weak successors on the French throne being unable to resist the Northmen by the force of arms, commonly resorted to the pitiful expedient of tribute-money, by which they obtained only a transient relief. They also endeavoured to convert the invaders to Christianity, and many of them were found willing to be baptized. But we may judge of the character of many of these conversions from the following anecdote.

"On one occasion so many Normans presented themselves to be baptized, that there was not time to prepare a sufficient number of white robes, such as were worn by the neophytes. They were consequently obliged to use such coarse garments as could be found on the emergency. A Norman chieftain, who presented himself to receive the holy rite, exclaimed as they offered him such a dress, 'This is the twentieth time I have been baptized, and I have always received a fine white robe: such a sack is more fit for a base hind, than for a warrior like me; and were I not ashamed of my nakedness, I would cast it at your feet, and at the feet of your Christ!'" p. 177.

The incursions continued until the Norwegian Rollo, who had been banished from his native country, landed at Rouen, in France, with the purpose of forming permanent establishments for himself and his companions. Rollo took possession of Rouen and the surrounding country, and after having defeated the Franks in several battles, and ravaged the different provinces of France, he retired to Rouen, organized his Norman colony, and consolidated his power. "He tolerated the Christians in their worship, and they flocked in crowds to live under the dominion of a Pagan and barbarian, in preference to their own native and Christian prince, who was unwilling or incapable to protect them." The king, Charles the Simple, at last succeeded in establishing a permanent peace with Rollo by solemnly investing him and his heirs with the duchy of Normandy. Rollo took the oath of fealty, but

"He refused to submit to the degrading ceremony of kissing

the king's foot, but deputed one of his followers to perform this part of the homage in his stead. The insolent barbarian lifted up the king's foot, which he offered him to kiss, so high that Charles was thrown backward on the ground, to the great amusement of the spectators: an incident which would seem hardly credible, were it not vouched by the unanimous testimony of all the historians of the time, both Franks and Normans." p. 252.

How little difference of rank there existed among the Normans themselves is evident from the first negotiations between them and the Franks before the peace. The two hostile armies being encamped on the banks of the Eure, the envoys of the Franks cried out to the Normans on the opposite shore that they wished to speak to their chief. The Normans answered that they were "all equal."

After Rollo had become Count of Normandy, "he distributed among his companions the lands in the country which had been hitherto called Neustria, to be held of him as their duke and feudal lord. The foundations of the feudal system were thus laid in Normandy, which was perfected by the successors of Rollo, and afterwards transplanted in full vigor into England by William the Conqueror."

This new feudal aristocracy still exhibited some bright manifestations of the old Northern genius. The Normans distinguished themselves by a peculiar style of architecture, a romantic literature, Norman minstrelsy, and some rhyming chronicles recording the history of the nation. Among these, the *Roman de Rou* (Rollo) by Robert Wace, deserves particular notice as exhibiting a true picture of national manners.

Mr. Wheaton relates the history of the Normans until the battle of Hastings, which made William of Normandy master of England. In this latter part, the work of Thierry on the conquest of England by the Normans, has been diligently consulted and quoted by our author.

While the Normans were engaged in their wars with France, great changes took place in the Northern kingdoms themselves. The most remarkable of these changes was the conversion of the North to Christianity. Among the great exertions which were made for this object, the life and missionary labors of Ancharius, the Apostle of the North, the founder of schools, hospitals, and convents, the friend of the poor, form a striking contrast with the cruel zeal by which

Olaf Tryggvason, and the second Olaf, called the Saint, endeavoured to spread Christianity in the North, as well as with the politic faith of Canute the Great. The latter says, in his letter to the English clergy and people, concerning his pilgrimage to Rome, "And this I have done because I had learned from my teachers that the Apostle St. Peter received from the Lord the great power of binding and loosing, with the keys of the kingdom of Heaven. On this account I thought it highly useful to solicit his patronage with God."

We have endeavoured to set before our readers the general plan and character of this work, with some of the remarkable incidents related in it, not in order to satisfy, but rather to excite the curiosity of those who are not already acquainted with the book. It is not our intention to weigh the internal or external evidence of particular stories related by the Northern chroniclers; their historical value often consists not so much in the facts themselves as in the fidelity with which they portray the men and manners of the time, by which, as Mr. Wheaton justly observes, "even the most incredible legends become valuable proofs of popular opinion." His work is distinguished by a faithful study and judicious use of the authentic sources from which the history of the Northmen is to be derived. He enters into the peculiar manners and modes of thinking by which they were characterized with the true spirit of an historian. The anecdotes with which the current of events is richly interspersed, are selected with that correct appreciation of facts of which we find many striking proofs in the "Universal History" of Müller. A detailed account of a single action sometimes contains more valuable information than an abstract statement of the remarkable events of a whole period.

We hope that the example of Mr. Wheaton, who has availed himself with so much diligence and judgment of the abundant means of information which his residence at Copenhagen afforded him, may be imitated by those of our countrymen who are placed in similar situations. At this time, when we are so much in danger of receiving false impressions of human life, manners, and motives, from the dazzling pictures of novelists, from the unblushing misrepresentations of party writers, and the obtrusive self-complacency of travelling authors, we may heartily congratulate ourselves on the

appearance of a truly historical work, full of instruction and entertainment.*

ART. XIV. — *A Manual Hebrew and English Lexicon, including the Biblical Chaldee: designed particularly for Beginners.* By JOSIAH W. GIBBS, A. M., Professor of Sacred Literature in the Theological School in Yale College. Second Edition. Revised and Enlarged. New Haven. H. Howe. 1832. 8vo. pp. 236.

IN the first number of our Review we gave our opinion of Mr. Gibbs's Lexicon. We understand that it has been very carefully revised by the author for this second edition. To assist him in his work, he has had the last edition of the "Manual Hebrew Lexicon" of Gesenius, and also the "Thesaurus" of the same distinguished Hebrew scholar, as far as it has been received in this country. With these helps and others, Professor Gibbs has been enabled to improve the definitions of many words, both by extending them, and by rendering them more exact. This may be seen especially in regard to the use of the prepositions, a department of Hebrew lexicography, which has, till lately, received less attention than its importance deserves.

ART. XV. — *An Appeal to the People of the United States.* By A FREEHOLDER. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1832. 8vo. pp. 88.

THE author of this Appeal, after some introductory remarks on political integrity and honor, which deserve to be deeply pondered, vindicates the claims of those American citizens who suffered from French spoliation previous to the treaty between France and the United States (which was fully ratified in December, 1801,) upon the government of the United States, for complete indemnity, principal and interest. The reasoning is grounded on the facts, that the French government was ready to recognise these claims, if the government of the United States would stipulate a full and entire

* In perusing the work we have met with a few misprints, such as Σαριφίται instead of Σαριφίται, and Samaritans instead of Sarmatians.

recognition of former treaties, such a stipulation, or a new treaty, being the alternative insisted on by France; and that the government of the United States, having by a new treaty abandoned the claims of its citizens on France, is in duty bound to indemnify them. The validity of these claims it appears has been acknowledged at different times by committees of Congress; but obstacles have been placed in the way of any favorable result to the sufferers. This appeal displays much learning upon the law of nations; contains a great deal of information concerning the political relations between France and the United States, and the negotiations that took place previously to the treaty of 1800, 1801; and addresses itself with great earnestness to that sense of justice and honor, which is to be looked for in citizens of an enlightened country.

ART. XVI. — *A Treatise on the Education of Daughters.*

Translated from the French of FENELON, Archbishop of Cambray. Boston. Perkins & Marvin. 1831. 18mo. pp. 182.

THE name of Fenelon is a good passport to a work pertaining to moral and intellectual culture; and there is little reason to doubt that what he wrote on Education has been pretty thoroughly studied and used by English authors since his time. The greater part of this Treatise is alike applicable to both sexes, and contains little to which a Protestant can object,* and little that is inapplicable to our republican institutions and manners. It displays the author's indulgent temper, mingled with his conscientious adherence to good and wholesome disciplinary rules and maxims; and imparts highly valuable lessons, with a few exceptions which some would choose to make, for the assistance of parents and guardians in their responsible relations to the tender objects of their care. This translation, which we have not compared with the original, generally reads very well as an English book.

* "Those passages in the original, which, from their reference to doctrines and ceremonies peculiar to the church of Rome, would be, to many readers, either unintelligible or productive of erroneous impressions, are here omitted." *Translator's Advertisement.*

ART. XVII. — *Lecture on Scientific Education, delivered before the Members of the Franklin Institute.* By JAMES R. LEIB, A. M. Philadelphia. Clark & Raser. 1831. 8vo. pp. 16.

MR. LEIB adverts to the division of Education into Physical, Moral, and Intellectual, but confines his discourse chiefly to the last, and particularly to what is termed scientific education. This is one among similar addresses before Institutes or Lyceums, calculated to draw more general attention, than can be expected from long and elaborate treatises, to the importance of intellectual improvement.

ART. XVIII. — *Thoughts on Female Education.* By MRS. TOWNSHEND STITH. Philadelphia. Clark & Raser. 1831. 8vo. pp. 31.

At the close of this publication, in which the author appeals most affectionately to the best principles and feelings of her sex, as subsidiary to the cultivation of the understanding and the heart, she says with a modesty and distrust, becoming indeed, but not called for by her readers; "Go forth — my little tribute! I cast thee now like bread upon the waters! Shouldst thou meet with one, amid the crowd, of kindred temper with my own, — to such bear my greeting — and receive my welcome!"

Such a tribute, intended to redeem any portion of our female community from neglect or abuse in regard to the privileges of education, cannot fail to be welcomed; especially when the means are pointed out for correcting past mistakes, and acquiring more just and elevated views of what belongs to the character of females as intellectual beings. This is done with great good sense and in an engaging manner by Mrs. Stith, who treats the subject of female education under the following heads: "1. In reference to individual happiness. 2. The use and value of the higher kinds of education to woman, in her relations to that small and particular circle — of family and friends — with whom her life is intimately connected. 3. Its influence upon the tone of society at large, — upon human improvement and civilization."

These "Thoughts" contain a very sound basis for a treatise on female education, which might be made attractive by such fullness of illustration, as the author's knowledge and observation would readily furnish. Her style has not indeed always the ease and gracefulness of one much practised in writing; although like her thoughts it is neither feeble nor overstrained, but often commendable for its beauty and strength.

ART. XIX. — *Sketch of Adjutant General SUMNER's Address to the Charlestown Artillery Company, upon Delivering their Field-Pieces. November 23, 1831.* Charlestown. William W. Wheildon. 1832. 8vo. pp. 23.

THIS Address, besides what belonged directly to the occasion upon which it was delivered, comprises a spirited defence of a well regulated Militia System and a well trained militia, by the principal arguments, authorities, and illustrations, which can be brought to bear upon the subject.

ART. XX. — 1. *Words of Truth.* By the Author of "The Well-spent Hour," and "The Warning." Cambridge. 1832. 18mo. pp. 249.

"WORDS OF TRUTH," — a very good title, and followed by very good "words," — the better because designed for children and young persons; to which class of readers we apprehend that truth is not only a much more wholesome nutriment than fiction, but, until corrupted by habit, much more acceptable; — truth, we mean, in the sense of the title-page, — truth of thought, of sentiment, of opinion, of principle, rather than merely of external fact. It is thus that this volume is made up; the form is sometimes that of parable and tale, but the substance and soul is exact truth. There is none of the false sentiment, the erroneous judgment concerning character, principle, and duty, the exaggerated coloring of life and manners and, human prospects, which falsify and debase the common romance, and we are sorry to add, render worthless and enervating so many of the little works

written for the improvement of the young. Even in this thoughtful day, when the true theory of education is so much studied and talked about, how many of the works designed for children, — written too by very well meaning people, — are nothing but small novels, grown-up romances in miniature. We rank them with baby balls and boys' parties, in which the evils of mature life and artificial society are made to come down to the innocent and pure, and torment them before their time. If we could ever advocate a censorship of the press, it would be for the purpose of preventing the publication of such trash. It should be abolished by the same act which should prohibit the sale of ardent spirits. We would allow no traffic but in "things true, honest, lovely, pure, and of good report." Under such an act, the author of the "Well-spent Hour" could have no cause to fear. There is nothing on her pages but what is true and healthful, tending to impart and sustain a high tone of moral sentiment, to build the character on elevated principle, and to raise up for us sons and daughters who shall adorn and bless society. And when we can add to this, that her writings have also been found to be among the most attractive of the class, we need not say how desirable we think it, that her little book should be read, and that she should write more.

2. *Days of Childhood.* By the Author of "Sophia Morton," &c. Boston. L. C. Bowles and B. H. Greene. 1832. pp. 121.
3. *The Trials of a School-Girl.* By the Author of "Days of Childhood," &c. Boston. L. C. Bowles and B. H. Greene. 1832. pp. 134.

THE first of these little books is intended for children learning to read. We have seldom seen any book of the kind which we should prefer to put into their hands. They will find very easy and very pleasant reading in it. After going through the book, in search of faults, we can find nothing to object to, except the play upon the word "box," on page 13, and the unfavorable notice taken of a dog, on page 9, and of the Italian, on page 116. We think no encouragement should be given to young Americans, to make puns, to be afraid of dogs, or to dislike Italians. This we say as grave reviewers. Children are generally the best critics of

books designed for them; and could the question on the merits of "Days of Childhood" be brought before a jury of "twelve infants good and true," we venture to affirm that the verdict would be favorable.

We love to read well-written books for children; there are few of Maria Edgeworth's works from which we have derived more pleasure than from those intended for the young; and we feel no shame in confessing, that we have read "The Trials of a School-Girl" with interest and pleasure. We recommend it to our young readers, as a good story, with a good moral, if they will but look for it. The author makes her girls talk and act like school-girls:—no small merit, we must allow, if we recollect how often (to borrow Goldsmith's illustration) we are forced to hear "little fishes talk like whales."

We hope to see more, and larger books of the kind, from the same pen. Could not the author tell us a story of the "Trials of a School-Boy?" We can assure her from sad experience, that they have no imaginary existence.

4. *The Child's Instructor, or Lessons on Common Things.*
By S. R. Hall. Andover. Flagg & Gould. 1832.
18mo. pp. 140.

THIS little book is divided into Three Parts, consisting of questions and answers. The First Part contains Easy Lessons in Arithmetic, upon the Inductive System. We very much question the author's judgment in the preliminary questions and answers, the object of which is to bring out the child's preference and decision in favor of study rather than idleness or amusement. Now every one knows how uncertain it is whether the child will be in a proper mood at any given time to do this with sincerity. Is it not much better, therefore, to watch the opportunity for this, when the child feels satisfied and pleased with what he has accomplished, rather than incur the danger of making him seem to be pleased with what he dislikes, and of saying he is fond of study, because the master expects him to say so.

The Second Part ranges all over the physical world. It aims to accomplish a vast deal too much, and therefore accomplishes very little. In Zoölogy, for instance, the author might for the most part have passed in succession the names

merely of the animals, leaving it to the teacher and child to find out what they can concerning them, to about as much purpose as he has given the pitiful accounts which are contained in his book ; in which there is next to nothing of the habits of the animals, which afford the most important and entertaining information to children. Indeed, we can perceive very little use in such kind of teaching. We have selected Zoölogy merely as an example. There is an answer to one question inserted in this part, which to us is very offensive, and ought not to be found there without a good deal of explanation. — “What animal destroys most others? — Man takes the life of both stronger and weaker animals. Hence the poet calls him, ‘Of half that live the butcher, and the tomb.’” The answer to the following question is quite too rhetorical for children or men. — “How does the world appear by the light of history? — Like an ocean kept in continual commotion by the influence of contrary winds.” We think Mr. Hall himself will smile when the mazed child stares him in the face with this reply on his lips.

The Third Part of Mr. Hall’s book, which is wholly his own, and which pertains to the nature of human happiness, the control of the passions, warnings against vices and sins, and motives for moral and religious purity, is very valuable. The answers to the questions are expressed with great simplicity ; they bear favorable witness to the author’s observation of the young, and to the influence which he must have gained over them, as a moral man and an amiable teacher.

NOTE.

Several communications were received too late to be inserted in the present number of the Review. We mention this not to boast of the treasures in store for our readers, but merely to assure those who have furnished us with contributions for this work, that their favors have not been overlooked or neglected.

ERRATUM IN No. II.

Page 147, line 4, for *expend* read *expand*.

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

Not finding much foreign literary intelligence of recent date peculiarly interesting, we turn our attention in the present number to a subject deserving notice, at home.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY. — LIBRARY. It appears by the Report of the President of this University to the Overseers in January last, that the Library consists of *forty thousand volumes*; that the building which now contains it is not sufficiently large to admit of a convenient arrangement of the books, and that by its being almost in contact with another building occupied by students, in which during the greater part of the year there are more than thirty fires, it is in danger of being consumed. Under these circumstances, he makes an urgent appeal through the Overseers to the public for relief from the present inconveniences and dangers, by provision for another building for the Library, to which the funds of the University are not competent. He does not approach the subject with any apologetical prelude; nor is there any occasion for this. The Library, as he maintains, is as truly *public* as it can be made. Its loss would be irreparable. There is no process by which it could be computed. Soon after this Report a petition based upon the same reasons, was presented by the President and Fellows of the College to the Senate and House of Representatives of Massachusetts for a *grant* sufficient to erect a suitable and secure building for the Library. This petition was committed in each board, and a report very honorable to the committee was soon brought before the Senate, with a resolve, granting to the College five thousand dollars a year in semi-annual payments for eight successive years. This resolve is indefinitely postponed by a vote in the House of Representatives; but though the grant therein reported will not be voted by that body during the present session of the General Court, we cannot believe that it will long be withheld by the government of our enlightened Commonwealth.

Books in the LIBRARY relating to AMERICAN HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, and STATISTICS, together with MAPS and CHARTS. On this subject we take the words of the above mentioned Report of the Senate's Committee.

"The American department was rich and curious, from books collected between the time when the Library was burnt, in 1764 and 1817; but in 1817 it received a great addition. The Hon. Israel Thorndike, in that year, gave a collection of books, which the well known Professor Ebeling, of Hamburg, had been nearly half a century in collecting in all parts of Europe, and which amounted to above

3,200 volumes. It related entirely to American History, Geography, and Statistics, and was the most valuable collection on those subjects, in the world. In 1823, its value was much increased by another important addition, the gift of Samuel A. Eliot, Esq. of above 1,200 volumes, exclusively on the same subjects, which had been carefully collecting during above twenty years at Paris, by Mr. D. R. Warden, formerly our Consul General in France. And finally, in 1830, the College, through the Hon. Francis C. Gray, one of the Corporation, then in London, were enabled to select from a rare and curious library of works relating to America, which had been collecting for about fifteen years, in Spain, France, and England, by Mr. Obadiah Rich, more than 400 volumes, not yet in the possession of the College. This last addition makes the department relating to America, consist of between six and seven thousand volumes, and leaves hardly a book or pamphlet to be desired. If this department, the most important that can exist in an American Library, were lost, it could never be replaced; for it is not only unequalled in the number of volumes and their value, but it contains many important works, not elsewhere to be found, either in Europe or America, and has besides been brought together by a concurrence of liberal benefactors and fortunate circumstances, which can never be expected to recur again.

"The Department of Maps and Charts is nearly the same. Mr. Brandes, a distinguished civilian of the Electorate of Hanover, began, nearly a century ago, a collection of Atlases, Maps, and Charts, which he continued to increase through his life, at a great expense of money and labor. On his death, it was bought by Professor Ebeling, who nearly doubled it both in numbers and value; so that on his death, in 1817, it amounted to above 11,000 Maps and Charts, and was superior to any collection in the world. It was bought by Mr. Thorndike, and given to Harvard College, and the whole collection now exceeds 13,000, leaving very little to be desired in what relates to the American Continent."

MR. WARDEN, whose former collection of books, &c., pertaining to this Continent is mentioned in the above public document, as purchased by Mr. Eliot, and presented to the University in 1823, has recently published a Catalogue of a collection since made, entitled "*Bibliotheca Americana*, being a Choice Collection of Books relating to North America and the West Indies; including Voyages to the Southern Hemisphere, Maps, Engravings, and Medals." Paris. 1831. 8vo. pp. 140.

This is a Chronological Catalogue of about a thousand works, and a hundred and thirty maps, charts, and plans illustrating the history of America, which are offered to the public for sale. Although the Library of the University is peculiarly rich in works on America, the industry of Mr. Warden has included, in this, his second collection, many works, particularly of a recent date, that are not yet to be found in its Catalogue.

LIST OF BOOKS PUBLISHED AND IN PRESS,

FOR FEBRUARY, 1832.

Carey & Lea, Philadelphia.

Robert of Paris and Castle Dangerous, being the last of the Tales of My Landlord. By Sir Walter Scott. 3 vols. 12mo.

A General View of the Progress of Ethical Philosophy, chiefly during the 17th and 18th Centuries. By Sir James Mackintosh. 8vo.

In Press.

Encyclopædia Americana. Vol. 9.

American Quarterly Review, for March 1832.

R. H. Small, Philadelphia.

In Press.

An Analytical Digested Index to the Common Law Reports from the Time of Henry the Third to the Commencement of the Reign of George the Third. By Thomas Coventry and Samuel Hughes, Esqs.

Nicklin & Johnson, Philadelphia.

In Press.

Wentworth on Executors. From the 14th London edition; with Notes by Jeremy, and American Notes and References by E. D. Ingraham.

Key, Meilke, & Biddle, Philadelphia.

In Press.

Bichat's General Anatomy. Translated from the Paris edition of 1831. 2 vols. 8vo.

Carey & Hart, Philadelphia.

In Press.

A Catechism of Facts respecting the Nature, Cure, and Prevention of the Cholera. By A. Grenville, M. D., F. R. S., &c. 18mo.

A Practical Compendium of Midwifery. By Robert Gooch, M. D.

A Treatise on the Diseases of Women. By Robert Gooch, M. D. First American from the Fifth London edition. 8vo.

Rights of Industry. Being No. III. of the Working-Man's Companion. 18mo.

Whispers to a New Married Pair. By a Widowed Wife. 18mo.

College Evenings. 18mo.

H. H. Porter, Philadelphia.

Manual of Anatomy. By J. F. Meckel. Translated from the German into French by A. J. L. Jourdan and G. Breschet, and translated into English from the French by A. Sidney Doane. Vol. 1. 8vo.

Account of the Origin, Symptoms, and Cure of the Influenza. Svo.
The Visions of Quevedo. 18mo.

J. & J. Harper, New York.

The Smugglers. From the London edition. 2 vols. 12mo.
Palestine, or the Holy Land. By the Rev. Michael Russell, LL. D. No. 27
of the Family Library.

E. Bliss, New York.

Poems. By William Cullen Bryant. Edited by Himself. 12mo.

S. Wood & Son, New York.

In Press.

A Treatise on Pathological Anatomy. By G. Andral. Translated from the
French, by Richard Townsend and William West. Svo.

Hezekiah Howe, New Haven.

A Manual Hebrew and English Lexicon; including Biblical Chaldee. De-
signed particularly for Beginners. By Josiah W. Gibbs, A. M., Professor of
Sacred Literature in the Theological School in Yale College. Second Edition,
revised and enlarged. Svo.

M. Tullii Ciceronis ad Quintum Fratrem Dialogi Tres de Oratore, cum Ex-
cerptis ex Notis Variorum. 12mo.

In Press.

An Introduction to Natural Philosophy, designed as a Text-Book for the Use
of the Students in Yale College. Compiled from Various Authorities, by Deni-
son Olmsted, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy. Vol. 2. Svo.

A Treatise on Mineralogy, consisting of the First Principles of the Science,
and an Artificial Method, or a Series of Analytical Tables for the Determination
of Minerals founded upon the Natural Properties of Form, Hardness, Specific
Gravity, and Lustre. By Charles W. Shepard. Lecturer on Botany in Yale
College. Part I.

Lilly & Wait, Boston.

In Press.

Maule and Selwin's Reports, condensed. Edited by T. Metcalf, Esq.
New Clerk's Magazine.

A Practical Treatise on Breeding, Rearing, and Fattening all kinds of Do-
mestic Poultry. By B. Moubay, Esq.

Library of Travels. To appear in volumes of about 300 pages each.

Hilliard, Gray, & Co., Boston.

A Treatise on the Law of Private Corporations. By J. K. Angell and Samuel
Ames.

An Introduction to the History of Philosophy. By Victor Cousin. Trans-
lated from the French, by H. G. Linberg.

Lectures before the American Institute. Vol. 2.

Laws of Massachusetts. Vol. 3. Part 2.

Latin Reader. Part 2. With English Notes.

Juvenal and Persius. With English Notes, by Frederick P. Leverett.

Legendre's Elements. A new stereotype edition. With Questions, and
Three New Plates.

In Press.

Donnegan's Greek and English Lexicon.

Poems. By Miss Hannah F. Gould.

Enfield's Philosophy. A new Edition.

Judge Peck's Trial. 1 vol. royal 8vo.

Cæsar's Commentaries. With English Notes. A new stereotype edition.

Pickering's Greek and English Lexicon.

A Treatise on the Principles of Pleading in Civil Actions. By James Gould, LL. D.

Carter & Hendee, Boston.

In Press.

A Medical and Topographical History of the Cholera Morbus, with the Means of Prevention and Mode of Treatment. By Scouttetten, Member of Several Learned Societies. With an Appendix, containing the Report of the Royal Academy of Medicine at Paris, read September 17, 1831. Translated from the French, by A. Sidney Doane, A. M., M. D.

A Third Book for Reading and Spelling. By Samuel Worcester.

Contemplations of the Saviour, in a Series of Extracts from the Gospel; with accompanying Meditations and Hymns. By S. Greenleaf Bulfinch.

Richardson, Lord, & Holbrook, Boston.

Hutton's Book of Nature Laid Open; with Questions adapting it the Use of Schools and Families. By the Rev. J. S. Blake.

In Press.

A Commentary on the Holy Bible, from Henry and Scott, with Additional Explanatory Notes, from Doddridge, Patrick, Poole, Lowth, and other eminent Writers.

A Universal Pocket-Gazetteer, corrected to the Present Time, with the United States' Census of 1830.

Crocker & Brewster, Boston.

Bates's Harmony of the Divine Attributes, with an Introduction. By Dr. Alexander. 12mo.

Essay on the Application of Abstract Reasoning to the Christian Doctrines, originally published as an Introduction to Edwards on the Will. By the Author of "Natural History of Enthusiasm." 12mo.

Gray & Bowen, Boston.

Life of Gouverneur Morris. By Jared Sparks. 3 vols. 8vo.

Grammaire Italienne. Par H. W. Longfellow. 12mo.

Annual Register for 1829-1830. Vol. 5.

Christian Examiner. No. 49.

In Press.

Saggi de' Novellieri Italiani d' Ogni Secolo. Da H. W. Longfellow. 12mo.

North American Review. No. 75.

Davenport's Biographical Dictionary. With Additions and Improvements. 8vo.

L. C. Bowles, Boston.

In Press.

Only Son. By the Author of "Early Days."

Five Years of Youth. By Miss H. Martineau.

Beard's Sermons. Vol. 2. 8vo.

Sermons, Practical and Doctrinal. By Bernard Whitman. 12mo.

Dutton & Wentworth, Boston.

Report of Commissioners appointed under a Resolve of the Legislature of Massachusetts to superintend the Erection of a Lunatic Hospital at Worcester.

William W. Wheildon, Charlestown.

Sketch of Adjutant-General Sumner's Address to the Charlestown Artillery Company.

Hilliard & Brown, Cambridge.

Theological Common-Place Book. 4to.

The Captivi of Plautus. 18mo.

In Press.

Owen Feltham's Resolves. 16mo. Vol. 4 of the Old English Prose Writers.

Life of John Frederic Oberlin. With a Preface by the Rev. Prof. Henry Ware, Jun.

A Friendly Review of Remarkable Extracts and Popular Hypotheses relating to the Sufferings of Christ. By Noah Worcester, D. D. 12mo.

Flagg & Gould, Andover.

The Child's Instructor, or Lessons on Common Things. By S. R. Hall. 18mo.

Charles Whipple, Newburyport.

Waterland on Regeneration. Second Edition.

Guide to Piety. Min. 4to.

THE Editor and Publishers of this Review are desirous of giving a complete Monthly List of Books and Pamphlets published in the United States, in each number of the Review. The agents of this work, and all publishers of books, are therefore requested to give notice, by the middle of every month, of all their new publications, and of such works as they may have in the press, to the publishers, Hilliard & Brown, in order that they may be inserted in the Monthly List, and may be noticed, as soon as possible, in the Review.